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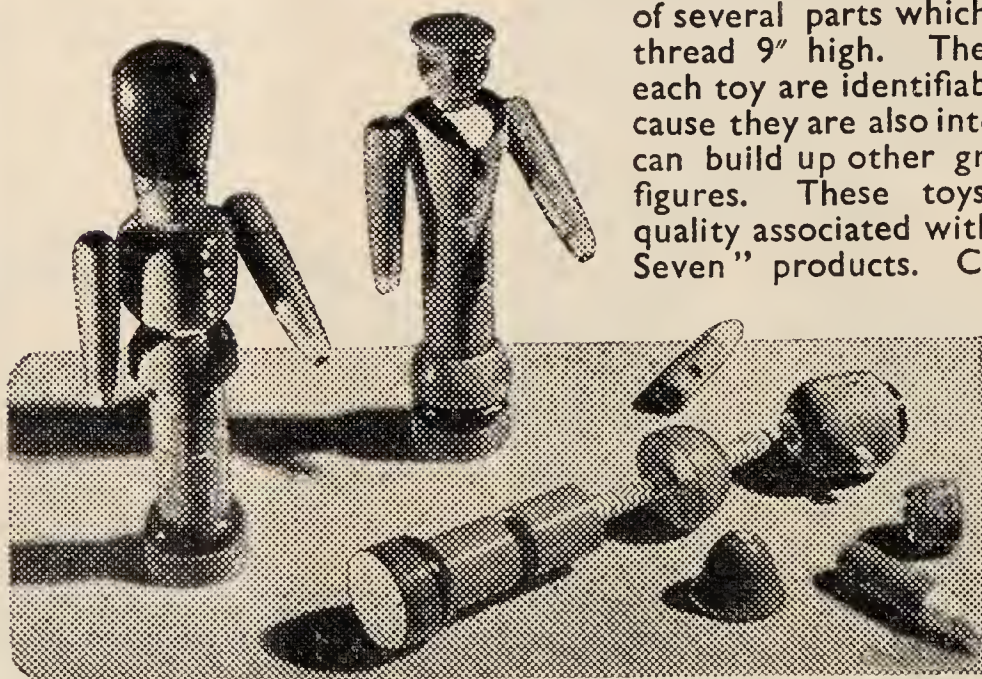
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THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

PUPPETS IN THE NURSERY SCHOOL

Enid Gentry

'SILLY', said Nina (aged three-and-a-half) to me, 'I'm not cutting it up. I'm only making a face for my doll.'

How easy it is to reprimand a child when one's original ideas are not followed! Yet it is not always wise to do so before making really certain that the original plan is not being improved upon. Constant experiment is a guiding factor in nursery work, with willingness to change one's plans and ideas as the children take them up.

None of us disregards the need for a stable background and a general routine; and, above all, the leadership of adults with whom the child is really at ease. These are basically essential before any experiments can take place: but, once stability is established, both the child and the adult can enter into new experiences together, and sometimes the original ideas come from the children themselves. In a group of club children making clay figures, one eight-year-old stuck a head on a paint brush and said 'Coo! Look! a puppet'; and, paste being produced, an orgy of papier-mâché making began, the five-year-olds pasting paper on everything except the clay head. In this instance, what mattered was that the idea came from the children and was not enforced from above.

The original idea does not always emanate from the child; for the making of suggestions and the introduction of new activities are part and parcel of a teacher's life: but the child should be sufficiently interested to add his own ideas to the teacher's suggestion—often to enlarge it, like a snowball, far beyond the teacher's conception. One has to be prepared for the developed idea to melt away as easily—and be ready to launch another. Naturally, some ideas are failures; such as an attempt a group of boys and I made to carve salt, which ended with a table full of well-ground salt and one small mask!

My first effort with puppets in the nursery was

in the nature of a snowball. It evolved whilst having to employ a small group of boys aged four and five. Just what led us on to puppet making I cannot now say, but thoughts of a puppet theatre, a show and the acting of stories were contributed by me to the common pool of ideas; and, to-day, we have about twenty-five 'dolls' hanging up by the so-called puppet theatre—some neglected after the satisfaction of making them; some carefully taken down, played with and replaced each day.

The first problem was so to plan the making of primitive puppets that the children could really feel they had entirely made themselves, for there is all the difference in the world between making something with the child—and just 'being around' and helping him with suggestions and with problems as they arise and as he appeals to you for help. All of us have heard a child trying to convince himself by asking the grown-up: 'I did make this, my own self, didn't I?'; the article made—whether picture, woodwork or puppet—being treasured according to how far he can feel personal pride in the making of it and can truthfully say 'I made this.'

As I could not picture these children sewing, I had to think of a way of attaching clothes and hair. I decided the office stapler might fill the bill; and the children obtained much enjoyment from shooting out metal staples. One 'doll' was encased in a mass of material; and, when I commented on the amount of clothes it had on, Jimmy said: 'Oh! But it's winter—he's cold', but I am perfectly certain it was so well clad (a) because Jimmy loved stapling and (b) because he couldn't choose between the various pieces of material and had to use every bit he liked—this latter trait being common in all forms of art with young children who have not started to discriminate but collect every colour or material or piece of wood and amalgamate all into their work. The original puppets were (*as illustrated*)



Maria and her friends.

stuffed flour bags with stapled hair, hands and clothes, and with painted faces. Often the faces were painted green—so, gone are our ideas of naturalistic reality. In work of this kind, I try to have as many bits of material, braid, fur and wool—varied in texture and colour—as is possible. I find this variation of material necessary and worth-while whatever the age of the puppeteers; and to see the children spend time feeling, stroking and commenting on certain pieces makes any extra effort worth-while.

It was very tempting—when the puppets were made—to take them away from the children and to keep the first completed efforts; and to preserve only those needed for use in one's own conception of a puppet show.

However, when the puppets were made, a stage was set on a card table—till then used as a staff dining table; and, nowadays, when the table is required for puppetry, the staff has to balance its dinner on its knees!

Old sheets were used as curtains. These I gave to the children to paint and suggested to them how they might be patterned. They started to work 'to pattern'; but, Eddie having asked: 'Can I make a man?' and a curtain having been painted entirely with cowboys, each with its correct film name, I realized how foolish it was

to try to impress my ideas of pattern on the children and how—at this stage at any rate—the sense of pattern is so inborn (or should I say unspoilt?) that I might well leave it to the children to concoct their own designs and execute them in their own fashion.

Next came furniture. Some small cardboard boxes had been included with the materials with the vague idea they might be used as chairs. One child suddenly found them and set to at once to make a table. Two armchairs followed; then cushions and a tablecloth; and finally some stairs.

Thus, with puppets, curtains, stage and 'set', we finally came to perform-

ance; and I suddenly realized how completely wrong my original plans had been.

These children had never seen a puppet show except Punch and Judy on Hampstead Heath, and, therefore, their idea was to get everyone sitting down and then hide behind the table and pop up and talk in squeaky unintelligible voices, the two puppets hitting each other all the time. The other children were quite fascinated, and I gradually gathered a complete picture of how Punch and Judy must appear to a child of this age. The carefully made furniture was unused during the performance but, when the show was over, the puppets (most of whom had names such as Maria, Charlie and Bill) were all put to bed in the chairs and covered over with the tablecloth until the next day!

This puppet craze did not last very long and was shortened by the end of term when many of the owners left; but the theatre was kept in a small room and often, when I went there, I would find two solemn children sitting on two of a row of empty chairs gazing at Jimmy being a complete fool with 'Maria' all by himself.

The value of the work done is hard to judge but one realizes something has been achieved when Peter is heard to say 'Sit down, everyone, there's going to be a show', or Michael instructing

me, 'Whenever I say "Hooray", pull the curtains' ! And if, on one occasion when some visitors wished to see a show, Eddie said of the puppets 'They don't feel like it to-day', I feel it was primarily because their owners were then much too busy making a camp in the garden !

The next form of primitive puppet I tried out was a potato puppet—not original, of course, but quite a success—the head being a potato with eyes, mouth and finger hole cut out. Peter, however, remembering the others, said : 'Can we make some proper dolls—you know, like we did before ?'—so we embarked on bags again. By now, I had realized that, not only could a few of the children sew, after a fashion, but that they absolutely loved it. One child had made a small wooden bed and then demanded a needle and thread to 'knit' some pillows and covers. Although it was suggested it was a little unsafe for a child of that age, I felt they should be allowed to try and I therefore bought some enormous darning needles and had no further need for the stapler.

This time I introduced puppetry into the morning activity period, so I had many more children from 3½ to 4 years, and from the beginning they regarded the puppets as dolls—at least in name—and I did not discourage this. In the enthusiasm of the first day, Nina—who had made a most enchanting puppet with a navy blue face covered with pink georgette and with two metal washers as eyes—insisted on taking her puppet home 'to show her mum'. She promised she would return it in the morning, and if she 'forgot to forget' then it would be returned the following morning. The puppet did not return—and there were various jumbled stories of it being cut up by her sister. I wondered whether I had been wise in allowing her to take it ; but, when Nina realized she could make another, she set to with renewed vigour and an even more charming puppet resulted. Later, I overheard her say to Linda, 'We're not taking any

more home till Christmas—then it doesn't matter if they get lost'.

This is no thesis on puppet making, not even a recommendation of method. It is merely a description of how puppetry evolved in our school. In a similar school even in the same type of locality, puppetry might be totally unsuitable. Certainly it is not to be regarded as a set piece in the curriculum to be repeated each year but purely an experiment with the children as the researchers.

To-day I found instances of the need for a new type of puppet. One child solemnly danced his doll up and down by the hair, saying 'he dances better when he's not on my hand'. Another three-and-a-half year old said she did not know how to work a puppet on her hand and wished to play under the table with it ; and while Peter was drawing a detailed picture of 'me, my dad, my mum, my big sister and my brother' all watching the antics of the television puppet mule, details were demanded of how the strings made it dance. So perhaps we may have a 'string' of puppet horses next ! Who knows ? I don't—yet.



The Puppet Book

edited by L. V. WALL

'Written primarily for school teachers by members of the Educational Puppetry Association, *The Puppet Book* gives an account of the educational and entertainment value of puppetry, and includes comprehensive instructions on the making and manipulation of puppets and on the equipment necessary to produce a puppet show, giving examples of puppet plays suitable for groups of school children. The book is interestingly written and illustrated, and proves its subject a worthwhile supplement to school education.'—*The Times Literary Supplement*. *Well illustrated.* 21/-

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PARENTS AND TEACHERS IN THE INFANTS' SCHOOL

Dorothy Scurfield, Headmistress of Ludwick School, Welwyn Garden City

WHAT'S Roger been up to? Has he been a bad boy? I asked what he'd done. His Daddy gave him a good talking to. I was that worried when you sent the note asking me to come and see you', said a harassed mother as she entered the Head Teacher's room.

It is rather tragic that efforts at co-operation can sometimes be so misunderstood. Roger is a poor, unhappy looking child. His parents do not come to parents' meetings, and as they never come to school they have no idea how Roger spends his day—the mother did not even know the name of Roger's teacher. When I sent a note to ask her to come and see me so that we could have a chat about her child, she at once suspected that he had been a naughty boy. It did not seem ever to have occurred to her that Roger needed a lot of help and understanding.

Betty is another pathetic looking child, with dark rings under her eyes, obviously suffering amongst other things from lack of sleep. Her mother is working all day and never comes to school, not even to Betty's medical examination. We tried to visit her home without success. Our only hope of co-operation there seemed to be through the School Nurse, but even she rarely got further than the door-step. We encouraged Betty to take home dolls' clothes she had made at school, hoping to get interest in that way. One day she flatly refused to take anything else home. 'No, my Mum says I mustn't take home any more rubbish. If I do she will chuck it in the waste-paper basket.' Then our Parent Teacher Association organized a Summer Fair on the school field, to which Betty's mother came and was seen to be enjoying herself at the side-shows. The next morning she shook me warmly by the hand and thanked me for a grand evening. Unfortunately it was Betty's last term and there was little time left in which to make friends with her mother.

Most of our children are with us in the Infant School for only two years. This is often not nearly long enough for us to influence the indifferent parent. Unhappy children come from unhappy homes, which are the ones we must make contact with. Can we persuade these parents that we want their friendship? If they will not visit

us can we make time to visit them? The matter is urgent. Perhaps a little has been achieved through our Jumble Sales, our Summer Fairs, and our Christmas Parties.

Such families, though very important, are the exceptions fortunately. Most parents want their children to be happy—even the father who says 'I believe in the hard way', or 'What was good enough for me is good enough for my Johnny.' Some mothers show anxiety when they first bring their children to school. An Irish woman brought her two children, saying (in front of them) 'Jackie suffers from nerves, he's very shy.' When I said we would take care of him and help him to be happy she replied, 'This other one, Bobby, needs discipline. You're not too kind to the children, are you?'

It is a good sign that at last parents are wanting to know more about the schools to which they send their children. Schools are criticized in bus queues and elsewhere, newspapers print articles about modern methods, and educational talks are sometimes listened to on the radio. All this indicates that parents are taking more interest in their children at school. Occasionally a parent comes to me and asks if she can see over the school before sending her child. We as teachers must encourage this spark of interest by real co-operation with our parents. So many of our efforts in the classroom are wasted if we have not got their backing.

Geoffrey seemed very insecure when he came to school. His noisy destructiveness was very disturbing. His mother made some remarks to his class teacher that showed she did not approve of the school or its methods. Gradually the teacher persuaded her to come into the class-room and interested her in some of the children's work. I invited her to come and see me, and afterwards she evidently went home and told her husband that the school really believed in what it was doing and had a purpose. He, too, came to see me, and we noticed a sudden change in Geoffrey; he stopped being destructive and became friendly. He began to play happily with other children and made real progress. The father now comes to all the parent-teacher meetings and

takes a lively part in the discussions. School makes sense to Geoffrey now, because he feels that his mother and father approve of us.

Graham is a large fat boy of six who would make no effort to do anything for himself, the sort of child who gets other children to do his clearing up, or stands by until his mother comes to fetch him and puts his coat on for him at the end of the day. After a few talks his mother told us that Graham had several grown-up brothers and sisters, all of whom made a great fuss of him. It was useless to expect him to make efforts at school when he had everything done for him at home. If he had never learnt even to wash his hands at home, was it any good expecting him to concentrate on doing things for himself and others at school? So we had to persuade the mother to change the attitude of the older brothers and sisters. Some of them came up to school and saw the children doing things for themselves. As Graham became less spoilt at home he started to make efforts at school.

We know how many parents are grateful that they can come with their children to school and sometimes stand and watch them as they start on their various activities. 'I hated school so much myself', said one mother to me; 'I was dreading it for my child. I was all worked up when I brought Nancy. It was such a relief when at the end of the first day she was in such a hurry to come back again the next.'

While shopping one day I heard a salesman ask a woman 'How's Mary getting on at school, does she like her teacher?' 'It's not a case of just liking her, she loves her', replied the mother.

Gwen was a very timid child who cried easily and stood about watching children but attempted nothing herself when she first came to school. She found it difficult to hold her own with the other children. We found that she had rarely left her mother's side before coming to school, and the sudden change from a sheltered home life to school was obviously too much for her. 'Don't hurry away, stay a bit and watch', said Gwen's teacher to her mother each morning when she brought Gwen. It was interesting to see the child's silent satisfaction at the sight of her mother and teacher talking together. Great was Gwen's joy when Miss B accepted an invitation to tea at her home. This seemed to give the child real confidence. Later, on another occasion, Miss B was asked to stay the night in Gwen's home

after a late parent-teacher meeting. The idea that mother and teacher were real friends seemed to bridge the gap between school and home, and many of Gwen's difficulties disappeared. She became happier altogether and began to attempt all kinds of activities. If only we could bridge these gaps more often!

Much can be done through frank discussion. Some teachers have found it helpful to talk with a group of five or six interested parents and tell them, for example, how reading is taught at school, and to answer their questions about it. It may be that informal talks with individual parents about a child form the most valuable contact of all, and give time for many difficulties to be cleared up. However, there are various ways of making friends. Working together with mothers and fathers for our Summer Fair has led to valuable relationships. Mothers made lovely cakes, brought flowers and vegetables, and together we arranged the stalls. There was much laughter, with the fathers arranging the side-shows. Parents' Christmas parties have meant happy times too. A play was acted by three parents at one party, and the evening ended with singing.

It is so easy for us in school to make mistakes in our treatment of our children just because we do not know enough about their home situation. How much easier it is to be patient when we know the difficulties and problems parents have had to face in the bringing up of their children.

Thus we teachers must be constantly looking out for opportunities for making more contacts and friends with our parents. It is only when teachers and parents really know and trust each other that we can give the fullest possible opportunities to the children.

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ACTIVITY METHODS AND 'DIFFICULT' CHILDREN

Wilfred Broughton

IN most discussions concerning the value of activity methods, little reference is made to their impact on children who suffer from emotional stresses and other specific disabilities. Yet when freer methods are introduced into the classroom it is with such children that the greatest problems arise. Their maladjustment becomes patent in an environment where they may reveal and resolve their personal difficulties. Teachers who can help them to do so are rendering an important service to the children themselves and to the community at large.

The success of good activity methods is generally recognizable amongst normal children in their more desirable attitudes and their enhanced attainments. But there still remain some children who for a long time fail to make much response, even though they enjoy the same conditions for well directed activity. Opponents of the freer methods often quote such children in their condemnation of a natural approach to education, although they must know that, in the old kind of school, possibly even more children made little headway and, worse still, spent years with their troubles unacknowledged and progressively aggravated.

Under formal discipline, individual differences are to a great extent ignored or even suppressed, as the children are urged on to the common objectives arbitrarily imposed and bearing little relation to the current needs of any living child. When, however, we dispense with outmoded incentives and restraints, specific disabilities as well as latent gifts are allowed expression and call for careful treatment.

Extremes of aggression and apathy cry out in particular for special consideration. Over-aggressive children need wise guidance not only for their own welfare but in the interest of others who come into contact with them. Apathetic children, although they were neglected with apparent impunity in the past, cannot be ignored by sympathetic teachers. On the contrary, they present the greater and more subtle challenges to the skill and patience of their educators. When, however, the teacher's best efforts appear to go unrewarded, he should bear in mind the effect of the many

powerful forces, hereditary and environmental, which are beyond the influence of the school. Against these forces, the school cannot, of itself, suddenly develop new habits and attitudes, however well founded its methods. There is, however, the hope that the teachers' insight and guidance, shared and supported in the home, may begin a process of adjustment which may in the long run lead to normal development.

In a short article it is possible to give only brief accounts of particular cases, chosen chiefly from the entrance classes of the junior school, in which children seemed to have made poor progress in the infants' school, even after two years of free activity there.

Our first example, *Brian*, was a child severely handicapped by lack of self-confidence. In a Victorian elementary school he would have been received with approbation for his quietness, neat appearance and regard for adult displeasure. In a progressive modern school, however, where he was placed in situations demanding self-help, his lack of initiative and adaptability was at once apparent. His reluctance to mix with other children and to engage in creative play, together with the general diffidence of his daily learning, revealed aspects of his personality which might never have come to light in the old kind of school. His mother, who visited the school regularly on his behalf, had obviously encouraged his fastidious and retiring disposition. An only child, brought up to be quiet, clean and over-grateful, he had been denied the usual outlets for constructive play and social experiments. His toys were elaborate and expensive, only to be handled with care under close supervision. Trained to regard the other children in the neighbourhood as social inferiors, he had little opportunity for natural intercourse with his fellows outside school and found it hard to mix with them in the classroom. No opportunity was lost to persuade the mother that the qualities she fostered were insufficient in themselves to prepare her little son for his place in the world outside the home. He needed, in addition, social poise and resilience, if he was ever to develop a self-reliant attitude towards other people. In the end, the parent agreed with the

teacher that Brian required more opportunities for self-directed activity and wider social experience. Release from the inhibiting effects of his own timidity thus became the prior aim of Brian's education, both at school and in the home, although, for reasons mentioned above, a sudden change was neither expected nor even desirable.

Brenda and *Wendy* presented a similar problem of greater interest. They were identical twins and so interdependent that they could hardly bear to be separated. They were used to great affection at home and amongst their neighbours who, attracted by their prettiness and similarity, were ever ready to give them help. It was not surprising, therefore, that they were almost ineffectual at school, preferring to comfort each other in seclusion while the rest of the children busied themselves. The two had no abiding interest in anything but one another, and the little work they did produce showed no due thought, although both were of normal intelligence. The only solution seemed to be an unrestricted working out of their mutual dependence. This process, a necessary preliminary to the development of real independence, proved to be slow indeed, but the teachers feel that in such a case premature separation and early insistence on formal skills along individual lines would have been cruel and psychologically unsound.

In contrast with the other children mentioned, *Dennis* was brimful of energy and confidence. Even at the age of eight, he was already profitably engaged in financial dealings: breeding mice and rabbits; selling coke and firewood; driving cattle and carrying on many other forms of casual and unofficial paid employment. He had no natural inclination for school, where his aggression and acquisitiveness caused much upset, especially in free activity periods. Having regard to his assertiveness and love of animals, he was given special opportunities to pursue his interest and responsibilities, through which we tried to induce in him a respect for law and order. In spite of kindly insistence, however, he remained perverse and refused to subordinate his own inclinations for the sake of the other children. He had to be sternly handled to prevent unprovoked acts of wanton destruction and still he remained an obdurate bully, ready whenever the teacher's vigilance relaxed, to abuse the freedom allowed. Such boys as *Dennis*, of course, cause great strains

in any school and we cannot be sure that those who assert repeatedly that he would have been better under a strictly formal discipline are correct. Perhaps sterner measures and repression in school would only drive him over the margin into serious delinquency and educational sub-normality?

These and similar problems abound wherever teachers attempt to introduce freer methods into the school. The period of transition from formality to activity is especially a time when behaviour problems are likely to arise, and unwary teachers, oblivious of the presence of hidden temperamental difficulties, may feel disillusioned and may revert to the notion that formal methods are, at any rate, safest. In the interest of educational progress, therefore, we require much more evidence and thorough investigation of the effect of activity methods on the potential problem children, as a basis for wise treatment of specific disabilities. At the same time a research into the possibility of early diagnosis and more timely treatment of children's difficulties would be another good educational investment. Recent studies show that if latent delinquency and maladjustment can be detected in the early years, there is hope that the incidence of these social ills will be considerably diminished.

Schools which provide an environment in which children have the opportunity to reveal their difficulties may therefore become prime agents in detecting incipient problems and providing some alleviation, even though the adequate means of therapeutic treatment must be sought elsewhere.

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SUGGESTION IN THE CLASSROOM

Marjorie L. Hourd, Author of *'The Education of the Poetic Spirit'*

NO teacher can escape the responsibility of being one, which means that he must have the courage to face young suggestible minds with the power of his own suggestiveness. It is no doubt because this is such a daring thing to do that some teachers seek ways of escape. They become instructors and hide behind facts, or organisers and hide behind methods (this latter is the more fashionable form of escape at present). But the true teacher knows that there is no way out. He accepts the paradox that genuine individuality is gained through suggestion, independence through dependence. He is neither an instructor, therefore, nor a director, but he is both an actor and a producer.

Socrates was this kind of a teacher. We are so familiar with the Socratic method of reasoning that we are inclined to overlook the very subtle way in which his arguments were presented. He had a dramatic instinct, with a feeling for the unities. He knew just where to molest a man in the street, just when to nudge him at a feast, at what point anyone was ready to listen to him. Far too much learning takes place in classrooms and lecture rooms. An educational institution of whatever kind should have a courtyard, quadrangle, garden or common-room where both teachers and taught can be rightly and properly molested. But the influence of Socrates had also a psychological foundation. He produced in men two attitudes of mind, one of devotion, and one of doubt, and these are the pre-requisites of learning. The art of suggestion depends very largely upon a combination of this dramatic and psychological insight, and this is why poetic treatments of the subject so often bring us closer to the heart of the mystery than the descriptions of the scientific investigators.

It has struck me that *The Tempest* is perhaps the most eloquent discourse on suggestion in our literature, as well as being many other things besides, for it is an allegorical play, containing many meanings and yielding to many interpretations. In one aspect of his personality, Prospero is the arch-teacher. The fact that he worked on a magic island in a special robe and conjured spirits shews just how well Shakespeare understood the job.

All schools should be enchanted islands both

to teachers and taught, and whether the master dons a gown or not, the children will regard his clothes as belonging to him in a special way. I can remember the clothes of nearly all my mistresses, and in particular the very beautiful overalls of one of the Froebel staff. She had at least half a dozen of these magic robes, and I think I regarded her as a conjuror. I was very much afraid of her, and I hated her; but I have to remember that throughout my life I have loved bright embroidery on grey linen, and this was the colour scheme of the pinafore I admired most. But I could not recognize the love that was mixed up in my hate, because she was not the kind of person to understand it. She was a moralist, which was a great pity, for she might have done much with that conjuring personality and those overalls.

It is the teacher like Socrates who can unite our doubt and our devotion from whom we can learn most. Prospero was a teacher like this, too, but he could not have got anywhere in his work of re-education were it not for Ariel. Ariel is the embodiment of the power of suggestion. In fact Socrates and Ariel were very much alike in the way they went about things. They worked with a mixture of ruthlessness and grace. Let us watch Ariel at his job.

After he had sunk the vessel in which the Neapolitan wedding party were sailing, he dispersed the company about the island, and then went round whispering things in their ears when they were in the right mood to take what he had to say. Ferdinand, it will be remembered, was in a particularly sorry state because he had just seen his father drowned, or so he thought. There he sat in an odd angle of the isle, cooling the air with sighs and his arms folded in a sad knot: a faithful picture of depression. Ariel chose this moment to draw him to contemplate his sorrow to some purpose. But he did not go up to him and shake him by the shoulders and say: 'Your father is at the bottom of the sea, so get up and do something.' That 'pull yourself together' attitude never does do any good when we are in a deep state of anguish. He used suggestion. First he sang about the fairies dancing on the yellow sands. He put his pupil into an enchanted state of mind, but with a warning that he would have to wake

up from it ; just as all the spirits of the night are called in from play at cock-crow when watch-dogs bark and the daylight world takes precedence.

But what a difficult stage in our education this is, that stage when we do not quite know whether we sleep or wake, when sometimes the dream is so sweet that like Caliban we cry to dream again, at other times the dream has so disturbed us that we are only too glad to join the waking world. And that is the stage a child is in when he listens with rapt attention to a fairy story which has both entranced and disturbed him, and he asks : 'Is it true ?' 'Did it really happen ?' One of the most difficult questions we are ever asked to answer. Ariel knew how to use this moment, for whilst with the devotion of enchantment Ferdinand followed the music that crept by him upon the waters. Ariel decided to strike deeper, to reach the doubt that lay at the bottom of his mind, a doubt about his filial reactions to the thought of his father's death ; for as soon as he takes the suggestion that his father is not only drowned, but is also re-fashioned into the coral and pearl of the ocean-bed, then he is able to permit a sea-change to take place in the depths of

his own mind, and to join the sea-nymphs in sounding the knell of that ugly doubt.

'Full fathom five thy father lies ;
Of his bones are coral made :
Those are pearls that were his eyes,
Nothing of him that doth fade,
But doth suffer a sea-change
Into something rich, and strange :
Sea-nymphs hourly ring his knell.
Ding-dong.

Hark now I hear them ding-dong bell.'

Now he is ready for action. He sees Miranda, suffers the transfixation of love at first sight, but is very soon offering her the throne of Naples so recently vacated by his father. This behaviour, as we discover from the rest of the play, is entirely in keeping with his character. Ariel did not put any ideas into his head that were not there already. And this is just what happens in the mind of a child when he listens to fairy stories and poetry, when he paints and draws ; phantasy thus released does not render him powerless, but makes it much more possible for him to encounter the real world and its problems, and to do this in accordance with his own personality.

As we watch the power of suggestion in the world we discover what a complicated task it

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fulfils, which this incident from *The Tempest* so exquisitely condenses. We see that it works from person to person through devotion and doubt, that it stirs the memory in unconscious sources, and that it results in expression and action.

Everybody is open to suggestion, but some people are more suggestible than others, and in different ways and at different times. We know for example that people who are ill are very suggestible, but so are people who are creative and imaginative, and also people who are in love—'the lunatic, the lover and the poet'. Suggestion is at its best educationally when neither our devotion nor our doubt is too strong, for we know how possible it is to love someone so devotedly that we do everything to prevent contrary feelings from gaining admittance, or we can put up such strong resistances that we will not give reason and understanding their rightful place. Every child in a classroom or student in a lecture room needs to feel that the teacher is speaking to him alone with special intent, but he must also be able to feel that he can refuse what is said to him if it does not seem to suit him. Inattention and the deaf ear are as appropriate in the classroom as rapt attention. And it is a good thing if the same person calls forth both attitudes. But it is unlikely that a child will feel safe in expressing his doubt or in breaking down resistances to learning if he cannot first express his devotion. The teacher with the fine overalls thought she had to improve and instruct me without realizing that first she had to relieve my fears and anxieties so that the sea-change could take place. We inhabited a magic island together to no purpose because she failed to accept the responsibilities of the magician.

Indeed, sometimes these responsibilities are very great, and especially when we are dealing with what I would call a kind of learning illness, for it is at such times that suggestion may have a disintegrating effect. Every class contains a few children who are learning ill. It is often the fear of this which prevents the teacher from using his personality to the full. And yet in all learning a certain amount of this disintegration must take place. There is, that is to say, a direct relation between a child's ability to learn and his ability to stand chaos and muddle. Prospero knew this and so he caused Ariel to produce the tempest which is in one aspect an allegorical representation

of this chaos. Ariel's methods were certainly drastic. He boarded the king's ship and 'flamed amazement', so that they all felt 'a fever of the mad'; a few indeed 'played some tricks of desperation'. This was the thorough shaking up they got before they were submitted to the witchery of the island. Nor was this entirely pleasant, for Prospero played many tantalizing tricks upon them. He would spread forth a banquet and just when they thought they could eat their fill, he would find some quaint device to make it vanish. Or he would entertain them with insubstantial pageants and then melt them into air. All this before he chose that moment when he could 'bass their trespass' and work upon the guilt in their minds. 'Methought the billows spoke and told me of it', says Alonso after the feast has disappeared, and he is so moved that he goes out with intent to drown himself, to do the thing which Ferdinand thought had already happened to him, which he thought had happened to Ferdinand.

'I'll seek him deeper than e'er plummet sounded,
And with him there lie muddled.'

But Prospero knew what effect his suggestions were having. He knew that the memory needs to be deeply stirred before

'Understanding
Begins to swell, and the approaching tide
Will shortly fill the reasonable shore
That now lies foul and muddy.'

It is, however, only with very sick people that such measures become necessary; but it may be that before any of us can remember and recollect our true selves a certain amount of dismembering and dispersal has to take place, and some teasing and tantalizing as well. If doubt and contra-suggestibility gain the upper hand in a class this may be an important stage to be gone through, for so often such a period is followed by one of intense concentration and understanding, that is if the teacher has his Prospero robes on, and knows how to use his Ariel qualities to the best advantage.

Thus it was upon the memories of the Neapolitan lords that Ariel's suggestions worked so that they began to see the world around them in terms of their own moods and wishes. What seemed lush and lusty grass to the guileless Gonzalo was dried up and tawny to the guilty Antonio. And this was another necessary stage in their re-education. Not until they had so experienced things did their vision clear. Any suggestions which we make to children will most certainly have the same effect. We shall not put ideas into their heads, but make

clearer and more conscious what is already there ; but not before they have first worked through the shows and phantasies which are parts also of their natures. This is why we can never go very far if we expect children to turn out what we think we have put in. Such an attitude breeds impatience too. 'I've said this once, I won't repeat myself.' 'How many times have I to tell you?' If you are a conjuror or an actor you will not mind how many repeat performances you give because no two audiences are ever the same, nor are any two contexts in the classroom, not even if you repeat yourself immediately, for suggestion works with Ariel-swiftness.

'Before you can say come, and go,
And breathe twice.'

And the second time you say the same thing, if you are careful to 'do your spriting gently' and not shew impatience, the mind takes the suggestion differently, because more deeply. We should, however, realize that it is much more difficult for children to repeat themselves in class. Their answers are so often discoveries to themselves which they feel nervous of asserting, or what they say is a personal communication which if repeated seems to lose the joy of its immediacy. How frequently one has to bend over a child in class to catch the whispered answer. I think teachers resent having to say things over and over again because they feel that their prestige is threatened. But the contrary is true. Only where authority reigns can suggestion work through to freedom. Ariel had to obey 'the strong bidding' and 'high charges' of his task-master. Frequently he jibbed, was sulky or openly rebellious, but his sense of loyalty and service prevailed because his chief desire was to be free, and this he was promised when the educative task was over.

Here we meet again the paradox with which we began. The greater the dependence of the child upon the suggestiveness of the teacher whilst he is learning, the greater will be the independence which finally he gains ; but that dependence must always admit doubt and resistance. Children cannot come into their own unless the Ariel quality of living is given its full rein. But this means that we must recognize, as Prospero did, the conflict in the minds of those we seek to educate, and more than this allow, too, for the conflict which is a quality of thought itself ; a struggle between service and freedom which was part of Ariel's nature. For in every

idea which comes into the mind, one part of it is seeking to return to the limbo of the elements where it had its beginning, and another part is seeking to gain consciousness and share in the work of culture and education. It is because of the existence of this conflict that we can never be liberated from the power of suggestion, but are subject to it, and will seek to subject it as long as we live. Prospero was not expressing a purely romantic idea, but a fundamental fact about the relation between unconsciousness and consciousness when he said :

'We are such stuff as dreams are made on
And our little life is rounded with a sleep.'

No doubt it has occurred to you that in emphasizing the personal level upon which suggestion works I have neglected the influence upon the child of materials and things, that also in thus laying stress upon the phantasy element in life, I have neglected the realities of the external world as a source of education. I have looked too long upon the dreams and have not given sufficient attention to the stuff upon which they are made, which not only consists of these unconscious wishes and needs, but also of the facts and happenings of our everyday lives. I once gave a class of children who were reading *The Tempest* the task of preparing a picture map of the island, depicting all the natural features of the place. As I watched the work grow and listened to their remarks I realized that whether we treated the 'still-veit Bermoothes' as one of the Bermuda islands or thought of them as only a dreamland washed by

'the foam
Of perilous seas in faery lands forlorn'

they nevertheless had the local habitation and the name which Shakespeare claimed for all products of the imagination : that if one landed on Prospero's island with text in hand one could find one's way about among 'the fresh springs, brine-pits, barren place and fertile' and not get lost, because one had a kind of compass. And these children soon began to see that although there was a wealth of detail to go into the map, yet all the time they were not able by this means to portray 'the subtleties of the isle'.

These came from the effects of Prospero's art working on the imaginations of the inhabitants. In the same way the materials that we put before children in the shape of paint and paper, pen and ink, wood and clay, specimens of all kinds and aids

visual and auditory—all these will not yield their suggestions unless we not only select them but watch and help the child at work with them, praise and blame him and know how to answer when like Ariel he creeps up and says, 'Was't well done?' 'Have you corrected my essay?' We cannot leave him alone without a compass and this we regulate primarily from a knowledge of his natural instincts and understanding, too, of the 'sea-sorrow' he is bound to suffer. True we govern him also by our knowledge of the external world and its laws, but it was Caliban who shewed Prospero where to find everything and Ariel who adapted it to his purposes. Try how we will we cannot escape the realities of psychic existence into the material world, which does not mean that this world is non-existent, nor that it has not purposes of its own. It is indeed one of the chief aims of education to discover what these are and to adapt to them.

I have been guilty in this article of belabouring *The Tempest* for the purposes of the argument and of neglecting the many other meanings in the text. A play can play many parts and so, of course, can a teacher. He is not likely to do really

well in his magic robes if he wears them all the time. I have on occasions maliciously observed how reluctantly schoolmasters doff their gowns when they enter their own homes, where they know that authority and glamour are worn with a difference. Prospero wisely took his off when he talked with Miranda.

Let us get rid of the myth that the schoolmaster is the same person in the classroom and outside. He is not. The danger lies in his inability to recognize his duality. There is always something a little unreal about the teachers who never leave their magic islands, and this is a problem for boarding schools to solve. But those who never feel any magic are in a worse position because they are not teachers at all, but either usurpers of the dukedom like Antonio or academic pedants like the one-time Prospero, whose books were 'dukedom large enough'. For every day to a teacher is like the time-span of a play. In the morning he sets out for the enchanted island, puts on his robes, opens up his bag of theatrical tricks, releases Ariel and begins. Then at the end of the day, he folds up his staff, takes off his gown, abjures his rough magic and goes home to Milan.

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Book Reviews

An Active Human Biology. **Cyril Bibby. (Heinemann. 3/6).**

This is an interesting and welcome plan for a study of Human Biology that could become perhaps the core of school science. Faced with the inadequacies and difficulties of the General Science courses that have rightly displaced the narrower sciences in many schools, I have often considered making the human body the central study to which all other elementary science is related. Now Mr. Bibby has provided the basis of such a course.

The book covers the structure and mechanical principles of the body, food and diet, general physiology, an elementary approach to the nervous and glandular systems, and a clear, frank account of reproduction, gestation and birth, with the essentials that an adolescent should know about his or her development. This is followed by outlines of heredity and evolution and developments in the treatment of disease. The book is lavishly illustrated and there is a gallery of portraits at the end which includes the bad boy of genetics—Lysenko. The latter is an exceedingly interesting portrait; readers should try covering up the name and asking their friends for an interpretation of the character written in the face.

General Science, however well taught, tends to find its unity in the mind of the teacher rather than in that of the pupil. It covers a vast field and the type of examination paper that is usually set on it does not encourage good teaching. There is much to be said for a course of study in which the integration of the departmental science subjects is secured in something concrete and something near to the child's experience; and what could be nearer than his own body? There are few children who do not 'come alive' in class when some item of scientific knowledge is related to bodily processes. I have found, too, that if there is any sort of history that has a universal appeal it is the history of man's investigation of the human body in health and disease. Further, I think there is room, in the study of Human Biology and in Physiology (a subject that can be taken in the General Certificate) for original observation and research, whereas in the physical sciences this is only possible at a more advanced level.

Teachers who are concerned as to what the average pupil—as distinct from the future university science student—derives from school science, will often feel depressed and doubtful as to the value of their work. How

often have we heard from the old pupil of thirty some remark such as 'Oh, yes—you taught me chemistry, didn't you? I seem to remember that it was exciting—but I've forgotten every word of it.' The trouble is that much of the science we teach, in spite of all our efforts to make it concrete and popular, is not related to things that are intimate and of *enduring* interest. I would not suggest that the whole of elementary general science can be developed through a study of the body; there is obviously a great deal in electricity, mechanics and the chemistry of metals, for instance, that cannot be so developed except by an awkward forcing of relationships. But the basic chemistry of air and water, of carbon and combustion, of solutions, is an inescapable part of a study of the body. The eye and the ear demand an understanding of light and sound, the skeleton and muscles of levers and movements.

A number of things that I should want to go into very thoroughly are passed over briefly in Mr. Bibby's book—the eye, for instance. This can be the basis of a most fascinating study lasting over several weeks. But it is evident that Mr. Bibby aims at giving a balanced picture of human biology and could not, without making the book unwieldy, go as deeply into some subjects as most science teachers will want to do in the laboratory.

This sort of science course involves pioneer work; we don't know much about its results. I think we can be sure that where anatomical facts are concerned and the body is considered as a mechanism, pupils will be able to grasp what the teacher puts before them—just as boys grasp, often with astonishing facility, the anatomy of a radio set. But it is on the physiological side that results will be more doubtful and we shall have to make a careful attempt to discover what degree of *understanding* is secured. What do *protein, vitamin, hormone*, really mean to children who have not done some pretty thorough basic chemistry? How difficult it is even in a straightforward elementary chemistry course to develop what one might call an understanding feeling about chemical relationships!

Mr. Bibby's book, however, does not throw too many technical terms at the young reader and the phraseology in general is such that the book can be read by the pupil without too much assistance from the adult. There are directions for a large number of experiments and suggestions for individual work—all of which would make the book easily adaptable to an assignment system.

One minor correction might be made to the diagram of cerebral localization on page 70. Thinking should not be regarded as a function of the frontal lobes but rather of the whole brain.

Kenneth C. Barnes

The History of Western Education, Fifth edition. Dr. William Boyd. (A. & C. Black. 20/-).

The publication of a new edition of this valuable standard work—now considerably extended—is one of the important events of the educational year.

For almost a generation as ordinarily reckoned and for many 'student generations' this book has presented with sound scholarship, insight and literary skill the story of the evolution of educational thought and procedure. It has clearly shown the continuing dependence of the present on the past, the interdependence of life and education and the importance of studying educational institutions and principles in the social context of each era. And its great story has throughout been enriched in interest and value by its studies of the thoughts, experiences and achievements of the pioneers, the men and women—from Isocrates and Plato to Maria Montessori, Helen Parkhurst and John Dewey—who have contributed something worth-while to the philosophy, general theory or practice of education, thereby facilitating or ensuring the progress of educative endeavour.

Serious students of this book will soon realize with keen appreciation that in writing its every chapter Dr. Boyd has been happily influenced by his discovery, made in his student days, of the virtue of the historical approach in the humane studies and that the surest way to an understanding of the present is through the study of developing thought in its changing social setting.

Senior educators will remember how lacking in interest and in evident usefulness was the historical section of the usual advanced course in Education. Fortunately Dr. Boyd's book has done a great deal to alter that by its enlightened grasp and enlightening treatment of ideas, facts, movements and systems that are of obvious importance and interest. And by revealing education as a whole that has evolved through the centuries, it has done much here and there to unify a course and to save it from being a mere 'chaos of clear ideas'.

To enhance the value of *The History of Western Education*, fourth edition,

might well have seemed an impossible feat; but by writing for this fifth edition his new final chapter on twentieth century education—a most effective *tour de force*—Dr. Boyd has done it. It is a bold and brilliant piece of work in which once again we have an illuminating study of educational development in the changing social milieu. As the author says, he has tried in this chapter to follow the development of educational theory and practice from the fresh ideas and enterprises of the first decade, through the challenging emergence of mass education on the grand scale in the 'dictator' nations, up to the problems of post-war education that confront all the peoples of the world, and to indicate what seem to him the significant features in the cultural scene at each successive stage. Notwithstanding its necessarily wide range this remarkable chapter is rich in essential detail. Having pointed out that 'the progress made towards the social sameness, that is the first requirement for general international co-operation, is shown in the universal adoption of the European school with its distinctive curriculum, methods and ideals', it goes on to present invaluable and attractive studies in *Changes in Educational Organization*; *Educational Science*, with its Statistical and Biological Approaches; *Education in the War Decade* in three grand phases—Enlightenment, Plans for Reconstruction and then the Reconstruction; *The First Post-War Reactions*; *Totalitarian Education in Russia, Italy and Germany*; *Democratic Education after the Second World War*.

Adequately to appraise this whole book, without appearing to exaggerate, is far from easy; but one can say of it that in all the ways known to him of judging the worth of a work it is simply excellent.

R. J. Fynne

Glaucon : An Inquiry into the aims of education. Professor M. V. C. Jeffreys. (Pitman. 12/6.).

To use some of Professor Jeffreys' own phraseology, *Glaucon* of course was Socrates' faithful stooge to whom was addressed the final message: 'If you will listen to me and believe that the soul is immortal and able to endure all evil and good, we shall always hold to the upper road and in every way follow justice and wisdom.' Professor Jeffreys, however, interprets the Socratic belief in the immortality of the soul, for *his* book, as professed acceptance of the Christian Faith; and even Part One, which sets out ostensibly 'to examine empirically the nature and purpose of education in relation to history and society' and to show that

a clear sense of direction is lacking in our educational effort, is liberally bespattered with such phrases as 'God's mystery', 'in sin', 'incarnational' and the like. Not that one would deny him the right so to do. But it is important in discussing as objectively as possible a book of this kind to remember that the author cannot really be objective: he seeks to indoctrinate, often unconsciously, and propaganda will creep in. The result is that ardent sinners like myself are exasperated again and again by a reading of the book and perhaps moved not to give it the close and careful attention and 'boosting'—to slip into Professor Jeffreys' occasional slang usage again—that it deserves.

For it is a courageous and sincere book. A thought-provoking book. The work of an educational philosopher who has obviously sat down and patiently thought everything out again for himself, and is modestly afraid that his best just is not good enough. This review, then, must have the double purpose of disillussioning Professor Jeffreys and impressing on all interested in education in our time that this is an outstanding contribution—despite its several imperfections which the author would allow—to modern educational thought.

'What shall it profit a man if he gain the whole world and lose his own soul?' What indeed! Part One of the book analyses closely the present situation of society with its doubts and fears and lack of sense of purpose and direction, with its inability to achieve true freedom in community, with its devotion to a deterministic philosophy and technological development and expansion, and draws repeated attention to the fact that the three great weaknesses in modern education are 'its feeble grasp of ultimate values, its deficiency as an interpretation of the world we live in, and its inadequacy as a practical initiation into the life of society'. He sees everywhere the symptoms of decay, in this western civilization of ours, and like the French Catholic philosopher *Gustave Thibon* (whom curiously enough he seems not to have read) is urgent that we individually do about it all we can. 'Whether we like it or not (here I quote *Thibon*) we cannot alone work out our own salvation. The members of the human race . . . who refuse to live and work in unison are like members of an ill-disciplined crew: because they will not work together to reach the same haven they perish together on the rocks.'

Not, however, that any atmosphere of gloom pervades this part of the book. On the contrary, there is a patient robustness about it all, an indirect invitation to the reader to be in his own way as constructive in criticism as is

the author. The main fault to be found with Part One is that the author (understandably) attempts to say too much in too little space and therefore leaves many of his statements unqualified. Implicit thought is a challenge which the inquiring reader will readily take up.

The same generally holds true of Part Two, which is concerned with developing the argument that in Christianity alone is the key to our present ills to be found—that through Christianity alone shall we effect 'a re-discovery of the value of persons amidst the depersonalizing influences of the modern world'. That is as it may be. It all depends what you mean by Christianity, and we will leave it at that. It is important, however, to note that Professor Jeffreys' plea is most emphatically *not* for the flabby 'waffle' that so often masquerades as Christian thought and not for 'religion in education', whatever that may mean. It is for the Christian way of life, for 'religious re-education'; for the affirmation of 'certain enduring values' and the relegation to each succeeding generation of the task of interpreting these values 'in the changing idiom of historical development'. There, no thinking person would disagree. All depends on a clear definition of what these enduring values are. And there we must leave the reader to come to his own conclusions.

P.S.—I see I also have for review *Repair the Ruins*, H. Blamires (Geoffrey Bles), 12/6. A sentence or so here must do. It is to me inconceivable that a man can make so many good points—as the author does in the section entitled 'A Christian View of History', for example—and at one and the same time be so wilfully or naïvely misunderstanding and misleading over so much of what the New Education stands for. In any case he contradicts himself. But we will not sift the rubble here.

Vernon Mallinson

Essays and Studies 1950. Collected for the English Association by G. Rostrevor Hamilton. (John Murray. 8/6.).

The English Association is making an excellent practice of publishing every year a book of invited essays and studies. This year Mr. G. Rostrevor Hamilton has been asked to collect them, and out of the seven invitations issued he has elicited several essays of quality. The most considerable is *The Basis of Shakespearean Comedy*, by Neville Coghill, and it is of very good quality.

Mr. Neville Coghill is at once a learned and a charming writer. So

much criticism deals with tragedy that it is refreshing to read about the sources of comedy. He divides the comedy of Shakespeare's day into two groups: the Satiric, as exemplified by Ben Jonson; and the Romantic, as exemplified by Shakespeare; and explains most convincingly that Shakespeare was not merely fancy's child, but followed a definite tradition of Comedy, handed down through Dante and the medieval writers, whereas Ben Jonson followed the Renaissance tradition. With Ben Jonson comedy is a savage exposition of characters at the mercy of their own weaknesses; with Shakespeare it is, briefly, a tale of trouble turned to joy. All that Mr. Coghill has to say here is good, and he leads us along most lucidly and entertainingly past Dante and the Latin grammarians and gives delightful analyses of one or two of Shakespeare's comedies. We could have done with much more of it.

But when he comes to the second part of his thesis the heart sinks. Here he offers, with disarming diffidence it is true, a theory that a number of Shakespeare's comedies (taken *in toto*) were allegories, and were understood by their audiences (who were familiar with the idea of allegory) to be such. *The Merchant of Venice* is the allegory of the Old Law and The New, Jew and Christian finally united in love, and *The Tempest* is the allegory of the Old Adam and the New.

This kind of thing is a fascinating game for the person who thinks it up, but why want Shakespeare to do more than he did? True the audience was tuned to catch allegory and allusion. True that, while Shakespeare wrote, allegories, allusions, quotations, undertones, overtones crowded upon him out of his infinite mind. He perceived them after he had written them and the audience perceived them when it heard them. But why suppose he was trying to fit the whole pattern of what he was writing to a second pattern hanging, as it were, on the wall?

And in pursuit of a theory, what amazing questions a critic can ask! 'Is the producer to understand *The Merchant of Venice* as pro- or anti-Jew?' Is the producer to understand *Twelfth Night* as pro- or anti-Malvolio? If there is any pro and anti in it, Shakespeare and all the great writers have lived in vain. The producer and all of us are to understand them with all their dignities and miseries, with all their greatnesses and smallnesses, with all the pros and antis that Shakespeare showed their fates and their characters to have wished on them. We are not even to understand *Richard III* as anti-Richard III.

Ada Harrison

In and Out of School. T. H. Etherington. (Pitman. 6/-).

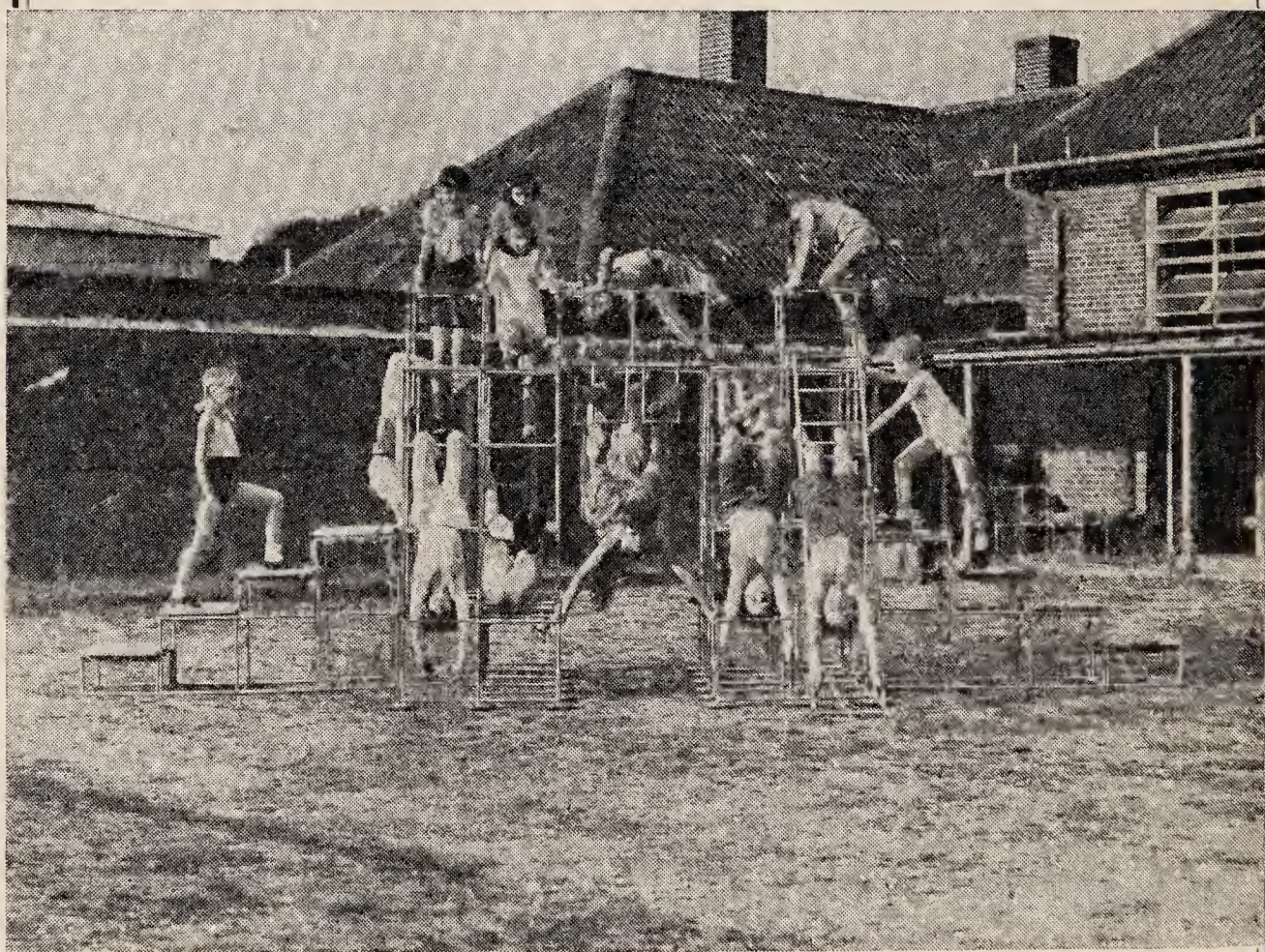
This interesting little book gives a clear account of the working out of a plan to use the resources of a school neighbourhood not only to create interest in the gathering of knowledge and the acquisition of skills, but also to encourage the discussion of problems and the allocation amongst groups and individuals of responsibility for their solution. In this way, learning became self-motivated and the teacher a co-operator rather than a director. The school had no particular advantage, beyond an enthusiastic staff, over any other Secondary Modern Department in a small market

town, yet it has inspired in its children a complete readjustment of attitude to school work.

Since speech was obviously to be the main vehicle of expression for the children after they left school, club meetings and discussions were the natural means of planning and reporting the enterprises. Collation of material, however, or record books or exhibitions of work involved reading for information, written accounts, mathematics, illustrative maps and charts, models and many other forms of pupil activity. The children then gave themselves wholeheartedly to the mastery of knowledge and skills, not as a meaningless routine, but as a matter of purpose and value.

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Making and Using Film Strips

By **T. L. Green**. A valuable book for those who believe in the film as a medium of education. Based on simple photographic methods and requiring no special skill, it shows how photography on 35 mm. film can be applied to school work by simple means and at little cost. Illustrated. Price 7/6

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The long and exacting process of experiment with various educational methods, of their adaptation and modification, is discussed with refreshing frankness. It will be a comfort to many teachers already practising new methods to learn that here too the initial uncommunicative and unresponsive character of the children's responses to the novel methods only gradually gave way to the spontaneous spirit of enquiry with which the children planned and accepted responsibility for success or failure.

Teachers long accustomed to traditional courses are advised therefore to proceed with caution and not to jettison timetable subjects and schemes of work too quickly. The change-over should be gradual and experimental, beginning with limited objectives and responsibilities, the scope widening as the teacher's technique and the children's powers develop.

This approach to learning is not easier, but the results, according to this convincing testimony, are undoubtedly more satisfying and invigorating. Teachers who contemplate work along the lines this book suggests will find much to inspire and help them in its sound discussion of various methods and in the accounts of enterprises undertaken by the classes.

Wilfred Broughton

The Educational Development of Children: the Teachers' Guide to the Keeping of School Records. W. Glassey and E. J. Weeks. (University of London Press. 8/6).

The authors of this volume clearly state in its preface that their aim is 'to answer the questions of the ordinary teacher and to enable him to master the necessary techniques' in filling in, interpreting and using record cards. They do this, not only by explaining the techniques of measurement and assessment required, but by giving in admirably simple and compact form a theoretical background of relevant psychological data. It is obvious that they write with the authority of experience of the classroom and a thorough knowledge of the field of child psychology and of research in progress.

To the teacher who has to be convinced that the added work of keeping formal records is going to be worth the effort required, it is made clear how record making will direct observation of individual children and enable him to consider appropriate methods of meeting individual needs. Not only so, but he is also shown to be in the position, if he will, of entering into a working partnership with the educational

psychologist conducting research into educational development.

There are useful appendices, listing standard tests and titles for further reading, etc. Appendix I should be especially noted since it rounds off the whole treatise in a masterly way by relating three case histories side by side with their records.

One minor criticism might be offered. The sub-title which defines more particularly the aim of the volume appears only on the title page. Scanning a row of new books, the teacher might easily miss a book of immediate value to him.

I. E. Campbell

Romance in Arithmetic. Margaret E. Bowman, M.A. (University of London Press. 6/- net).

This excellent little book can be warmly recommended to all teachers of mathematics. In it the author has assembled a great many little-known but fascinating facts about the origin and history of our present systems of reckoning currency, weights and measures, and time, discoursing of them in an easy and readable style which will appeal to intelligent pupils as well as to teachers and training-college students. Armed with the information it contains, the teacher can transform the fact that the rod, pole, or perch is $5\frac{1}{2}$ yards (and many like it) from an irrational impediment to calculation into a facet of the absorbing story of man's creative development, arising naturally from human needs and activities. The author also discusses proposed reforms of our units, with restrained sympathy. Time-scales, a bibliography and an index add to the book's value.

W. L. B. Nixon

Tribunal. Vol. 1, No. 1. 1950. Published twice yearly, annual subscription 5/6.

Borstal, a Critical Survey. W. A. Elkin and the Rev. D. B. Kittermaster. 1950. 2/6.

Both of these publications have been issued recently by the Howard League for Penal Reform. *Tribunal* is an international review of penal administration (at some later date we might prefer the word 'treatment') which gives each contribution in English, French and German. The first issue contains articles from France, Germany, Holland, the Argentine, India, New Zealand, South Africa, and the United States. It may be of interest that the South African contribution is headed 'Penal Reform and Race Relations' and mentions that, in 1947, 117,746 persons were imprisoned

for one month or less for infringements of the new pass-laws, and that the Penal Reform Commission has condemned the use of imprisonment when there is no real crime! The American survey on the working of the parole system is of great interest.

In the small book on the Borstal system there is first a short historical outline of the origin and development of the institutions prior to and since the Criminal Justice Act of 1948. The existing Borstals, their organization, the selection of staff and inmates are described briefly, followed by a detailed account of the regime and training, first in the boys' and then in the girls' Borstals. The problem caused by the conversion of ordinary prisons into Borstals is stressed rightly. The detailed description of the tasks of after-care and of the attempts to cope with them deserves to be mentioned especially. There are a number of valuable recommendations.

The Rev. Kittermaster describes Borstal as seen through the eyes of a Borstal Chaplain' and we feel extremely grateful to find here a frank, openly critical and occasionally quite humorous discussion of present conditions based on the author's personal experience. His suggestion that Borstals should be separated from the prison system does not, however, seem to be the solution of the problem.

K. F. Hirsch

LETTERS ABROAD

M. Freinet, whom many members of the New Education Fellowship will remember both from the Nice Conference and from his admirable work on School Co-operatives, has written to ask our help in getting the exchange of correspondence and scrap-books between schools in France and those in the English-speaking world. M. Freinet has already established a flourishing exchange between French schools and schools in Switzerland, Belgium, Luxembourg and French Canada, but says that he has 'for some unknown reason' great difficulty in doing so with schools in England and the U.S.A. He encourages the exchange between school and school rather than between child and child, and urges the great value of the exchange of scrap-books between Primary Schools where the children have little or no knowledge of each other's language when the exchange first begins.

Any English-speaking teachers who are interested should write to M. Freinet at the Institut Coopératif de l'Ecole Moderne, Place du Pont Romain, Cannes (A.-M.), marking their letters '*Correspondances Inter-scolaires Internationales*'. The particulars he asks for in the first letter are: Name and address of the school; the name and address of the teacher who will take responsibility for instit-

uting the exchange; the number and age of the pupils in the school; the countries with which the school wishes to make an exchange, in order of preference; if the school has a children's magazine; would the children like to exchange stamp-albums; what language will be used—French, English, German, Spanish, Italian, etc.

The Secretary of the newly-formed N.E.F. group in Germany writes as follows: 'Last week we had a workshop attended by teachers of south Hesse, who are teaching English in Elementary schools. Some of the teachers asked me to get them addresses of English school classes in order to enable the children to exchange letters with each other. There are seven teachers who have asked me for such addresses and the age of the pupils is between 11 and 13 years. Now, is it possible for you to make such arrangements and to submit addresses to me? My address is: Herr Bruno Karlsson, Director, Education Service Center, Bergstrasse, Jugenheim.'

I am putting both M. Freinet and Herr Karlsson in touch with more official bodies if they do not get a good response from English-speaking teachers through this letter, but I think that readers of *The New Era* may like a first chance. All letters should be sent direct to M. Freinet or Herr Karlsson.

ED.

Directory of Schools

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Headmaster: T. F. COADE, M.A.

(Christ Church, Oxford)

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Directory of Schools—continued

ELMTREES

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From January, 1951, the Junior Department of the Farmhouse School, Wendover, is being transferred to Elmtrees, and will be open to girls from 7-11 years.

The adjoining house, LITTLE ELM-TREES, will be run as a Nursery and pre-preparatory school for boys and girls 3-7 years, and will provide a happy, home-like environment for a limited number of boarders, and for day pupils. The school is attractively furnished and fully equipped to meet the needs of young children. The grounds of 5 acres open on to the wooded slopes of the Chiltern Hills.

Fees: £135 per annum.

Principal: Miss M. K. Wilson.

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Headmaster: W. B. CURRY, M.A., B.Sc.

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A limited number of scholarships are available, and further information about these may be obtained from the Headmaster.

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THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

THIS WAS THE PROBLEM

H. E. Holt, Commonwealth Minister for Immigration, Australia

IN Australia we do not measure the success of our migration programme merely in terms of the number and quality of people we have been able to attract to this country. We regard as a real test of our success the extent to which the new arrivals have become happily settled and warmly received in their new homeland.

We faced a special problem of assimilation when, in 1947, the Australian Government undertook the settlement of large numbers of migrants from the Displaced Persons' Camps in Europe. From its pioneering days onward, Australia's new settlers had comprised an overwhelming majority of persons of British origin. The new settlers from Europe were freshly come from the horrors and hardships of war, eager for the peace and security which Australia was able to offer. They came with a commendable determination to rebuild their shattered lives, but ill equipped to understand the language of their adopted land or the ways of its people.

As European migrants poured into Australia in their tens of thousands the Government had not only to face the tasks of providing food, shelter and employment, but had also to cope with difficulties caused by language, foreign customs and a different outlook. The migrants had to be taught English; we wanted them to learn and adopt the British way of living; we wanted them to get to know Australians quickly and be understood by us. To do that our own people had to be taught something of the background of our new settlers, what they were like, what they had to offer us, how they could help us and be

helped by us. Now, even after such a comparatively short period of mutual acquaintance, it can safely be said that the Australian people have found the migrants to be warm-hearted industrious folk who are making a useful contribution to the economic and cultural life of the nation.

Instruction in English begins at embarkation points in Europe. Preliminary classes are held there, supplemented by classes organized on the voyage by education officers, who show informative films, give talks about Australia and answer enquiries. Within Australia, the Commonwealth Office of Education, acting on behalf of the Department of Immigration, has set up an organization to provide more comprehensive instruction. Newcomers are able to continue their studies after leaving the Reception and Training Centres and all New Australians, no matter where they are located, are encouraged to seek and obtain help.

In January 1950 the first Australian Citizenship Convention was held. Its prime purpose was to impress on all Australians, new and old alike, the privileges and responsibilities of citizenship and the contribution to national development which migration could bring. Stress was laid on the need for happy assimilation, and arising out of the Convention, Good Neighbour Councils and Committees have been constituted throughout Australia. These can perhaps make the greatest contribution to happiness by making the new settler feel thoroughly welcome and at home in his new homeland.

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AUSTRALIA'S 'STIMULATING ADVENTURE'

T. H. E. Heyes, Secretary, Commonwealth Department of Immigration.

'STIMULATING adventure' is how the Minister for Immigration, Mr. Holt, has described Australia's present immigration programme. Migration is not something which might, like a tap, be turned on or turned off at will. Experience has shown that migration comes in waves. A country which has the conditions to attract migrants must grasp the opportunity when it offers. Such is the case with Australia's post-war migration plans.

After the war there were millions of restless people, people on the move, people seeking new outlets from their old environments, people displaced from their homes seeking new homes in a new land. Australia had the open spaces, the geographical remoteness from the turmoil of Europe, the natural resources which gave promise of great development, and the proud story of much progress made in a short history. Australia has attracted thousands of new settlers to her shores during the past three years. Among them have been British, Dutch, Americans and Europeans of many nationalities. With this last mentioned stream of new settlers came the displaced persons of Europe, and it is to them that this article relates.

The agreement with the International Refugee Organisation under which Australia was to receive thousands of displaced persons was signed on behalf of the Commonwealth Government in July, 1947. These people needed to be received into Australia and provided with immediate accommodation. Unlike the British migrants, they were not coming on the nomination of Australians, nor were they coming to accommodation guaranteed by a nominator. Accommodation had to be found for them. Immigration officers examined old and disused army camps in Australia to ascertain which could be reconditioned most speedily, and which of them would not throw excessive strains on transport facilities for bringing large parties of newcomers from shipside.

It was about four months later that the first I.R.O. ship carrying 800 displaced persons as migrants reached Melbourne; but even in that short space of time, the Army camp at Bonegilla, on the banks of the Hume Weir, had been set in

order. Arrangements had been made to photograph and record the newcomers, to give them a medical examination, to provide them with facilities for learning English, to classify them for employment and to provide them with social services. To-day, two and a half years later, Bonegilla continues to receive European migrants, but it is now only one of a number of such centres. There is also Graylands in Western Australia, and Bathurst and Greta in New South Wales.

Originally the plan was to receive these European migrants into reception and training centres where they were to be classified according to their employment qualifications and allotted to prescribed work. If the work was with a private employer, he was to be required to provide accommodation; but if the migrant was to be employed by the Government, the Commonwealth was to provide it. It soon became apparent that one of the greatest problems was to accommodate not only the worker but also his family. To meet this situation, the Commonwealth has established eighteen holding centres, six of which are in New South Wales, four in Victoria, four in Queensland, three in Western Australia, and one in South Australia.

The present procedure is that all newcomers go at first to a reception and training centre. When the head of the family is allotted to employment, his dependants are placed as soon as possible in the holding centre nearest to his place of employment. He is encouraged to find for himself and his dependants accommodation in the area where he is working, and if this can be found the family group is immediately transferred from the holding centre. Since 1947 the Immigration Department has provided reception and training centres which are able to accommodate a maximum of 23,500 persons, and holding centres which accommodate nearly 20,000.

As an example of the procedure followed in the reception and training centres, let us take Bathurst. This centre, six miles outside the town of Bathurst, occupies part of an old army camp area. The former administrative block is the headquarters for the staff and contains the telephone exchange and public address system.

In front of the block are lawns and flower beds which have been made by the migrants. In the middle of the lawns they have made a representation of the Commonwealth coat-of-arms cleverly constructed from marble chips, pieces of coloured glass and other materials.

The original army quarters have been converted into dormitories for men and women, and into living quarters for family units. There are toilet facilities for each army hut, and a hospital with a maternity ward has been established. One hut has been converted into a chapel for use by the various denominations. There is also a canteen and a theatre where films are shown and where migrants give concerts.

On arrival at the centre, where they remain for three weeks, migrants are classified into groups according to their knowledge of English. The Commonwealth Office of Education, as the agent for the Immigration Department, provides a wide range of classes for students, who vary from persons well schooled in languages, history and other subjects but with no knowledge of English, down to people who have no English and with a poor knowledge of their own language.

A monthly newspaper, *The New Australian*, which is produced for the Immigration Department by the News and Information Bureau of the Department of the Interior, is distributed to the newcomers and an illustrated wall-newspaper is also provided to give them additional information relating to Australia.

All European migrants coming to Australia under the I.R.O. agreement sign contracts promising to accept for the first two years after their arrival such employment as may be found for them by the Government. As agent for the Immigration Department, the Commonwealth Employment Service interviews new arrivals and allots them to essential work for which Australian labour is either not available or is insufficient. They receive the same pay and enjoy the same working conditions as other Australians and are encouraged to join appropriate trade unions. Those who become union members receive all the conditions secured by the unions. Those who do not join unions enjoy the prevailing wages and conditions for non-unionists in the trade or in the particular locality.

By the end of June, 1950, 61,439 former

HEINEMANN

A GROUP OF JUNIORS

FRANCES TUSTIN

Comparatively little has been written about the junior stage of child growth. This book will, therefore, prove welcome to those who have sensed that children between 7 and 11 years are richer in imagination and more complicated in their social feelings than many authors give them credit for.

Based on detailed observations of children's spontaneous activities, the author's interpretations, never dogmatic, are presented in a delightfully readable and unpretentious manner; and she sees education as far more than the learning and teaching done in school. Illustrated with the children's drawings.

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ON NOT BEING ABLE TO PAINT

JOANNA FIELD

This remarkable book, published last summer, has been welcomed as a fascinating and stimulating work by people of widely differing tastes and interests.

The New Statesman called it "an absorbing mental adventure story"; *The Listener*, "a necessary, honest and thoughtful first step towards a new approach to the arts"; *The British Medical Journal*, "an introduction to surrealism, to aesthetics, or modern art . . . approaches philosophy, raises many fascinating and unsolved questions." *The Manchester Guardian* called it "of absorbing interest to all who are struggling in the field of art and education," and *The Observer* praised the author's "skill, detachment, and direct easy manner."

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Their arts and talents will contribute much . . .

displaced persons, of whom nearly 50,000 were males and more than 12,000 females, were employed throughout the Commonwealth. By that date, 12,291 had completed their contract with the Government and were entitled to apply for release. Up to the end of May, 7,573 had been released.

The Immigration Department has always realized that the 'settling-in' process is not an easy one, and has accordingly established a section of fully qualified social workers to assist the newcomers with their problems. These social workers form a link with the many organizations, churches and Government departments interested in the welfare of the newcomers.

The migrants bring with them arts and cultures from lands which were ancient before Australia was settled. The Immigration Department does not propose to encourage them to forget their traditions and culture, but hopes that their arts and talents will contribute much to the pattern of our own Australian culture.

Satisfactory assimilation of the newcomers depends upon a correct attitude of mind on the part of both the migrant and the Australian. Assimilation has been described as a two-way process, in which the migrant must be met at least half-way by the members of the receiving

nation. The migrant should be encouraged to adopt our language and way of life and eventually to become an Australian citizen. At the same time the Australian must appreciate the difficulties and the potential contribution of the newcomer and welcome him into a place in the community.

Addressing the Australian Citizenship Convention at Canberra in January, 1950, the Prime Minister, Mr. Menzies, said: 'If everyone of us in Australia understood that migration was vital to our existence, growth and development, then we should regard every migrant as our friend, and we should go to no end of trouble to make every migrant feel at home.' He added that if we did not want a man to come to our

country to live we could keep him out. But if we let him in, then he must be a member of our national family. There was no middle course.

The Minister for Immigration, Mr. Holt, on that occasion said that much work had been done by churches and voluntary organizations of their own accord, but there was much more to be done. He recalled that during the last war public-spirited persons rallied together to form patriotic societies to perform a national work in wartime. 'But peace can have her victories no less renowned than those of war', said Mr. Holt. 'I should like to see the kind of people who did such excellent work in the war years combine in each of our shires and municipalities to form welcome committees and make it their job to co-operate with the migrants in their own localities.'

To-day this 'good neighbour' movement is spreading. Many organizations operating on a community basis arrange social events, assist migrants in their studies, their professions, the practice of their religion and in other ways. A Good Neighbour Council operates in each of the States as a co-ordinating body.

The Commonwealth Government has appointed Mr. J. T. Massey, former National Secretary of the Australian Y.M.C.A., to be Commonwealth Co-ordinator of assimilation activities. It has

also undertaken to provide full-time secretaries and other forms of assistance to the Good Neighbour Councils.

The purpose of the Good Neighbour Councils is to carry on social and welfare activities which are impracticable for the Commonwealth and State Governments. The following gives some idea of the services being provided :

Chaplains travel on migrant vessels, others are attached to the staffs of reception and training centres, and in many cases the churches have arranged for migrant clergymen to attend to the needs of their own nationals or members of their own language group until they have learnt English.

Visits are paid to migrants in hospital.

Social clubs have admitted newcomers to membership and some have 'open nights' at which migrants are able to meet Australians.

Arrangements are made for newcomers to visit Australian homes.

Appropriate societies concern themselves with the interests of graduates and students and arrange for them to be advised regarding their studies and the recognition of their academic qualifications.

In both country and city areas, members of assimilation groups meet migrants on arrival in their districts and introduce them to local organizations.

By this practical approach to the problem of assimilation, Australia hopes to achieve the ideal of one national family. Many public-spirited people are freely giving their time and energy towards this end. They are determined that Australia's great peacetime experiment shall be not only a stimulating adventure but result in a permanent accretion to the culture and progress of this young nation.

EDUCATION OF MIGRANTS IN EUROPE AND ON BOARD SHIP

Zoe P. E. Ritchie

WHEN the Commonwealth Office of Education began its teaching of English to European Adult Immigrants in Reception Centres in Australia, the length of the course was from three to five weeks. This period was too short, even for the laying down of the bare rudiments of the language. Yet the very shortness of the course gave rise to a development of methods and techniques designed to gain immediate results. If time is money to some, to those who guided the scheme, time was the power to speak and understand. Not weeks but days and even hours grew in significance.

The original plan prepared by the Office of Education envisaged teaching being carried out in Europe and on ships and when the immigrants' period in the Reception Centres in Australia was considerably reduced, this plan was put into operation.

The I.R.O. Embarkation Centres are camps where, after final acceptance for Australian emigration, the Displaced Persons await the ships for movement to Australia. The period of waiting varies from a matter of days to weeks and in some rare cases, to months. As there are several thousand people in these centres and the average I.R.O. ship carries between 680 and 1800 passengers, there is a constant movement of people

from the Centres. Often when a ship's complement of passengers is drawn up, it consists of people from several camps, so that small groups are continually being called away from a camp. To keep a steady flow ready for embarkation, replacements of emigrants are brought from Transit Camps which are scattered throughout Western Europe. Thus at two or three days' notice, people move out of camps to be replaced at equally short notice by others.

It was into this situation that Australia sent Education Officers to organize and conduct schools for the teaching of English. Until March, 1950, the largest Embarkation Centre was at Bagnoli, Italy. Emigrants were brought from Germany to this Centre for ease of shipping at Naples. There were three smaller subsidiary Camps at Trani, Aversa, and Capua, and to each Camp an Australian Education Officer was appointed to organize instruction.

In Bagnoli space was at a premium. Only the Cinema Hall was available and that for only a few hours a day. It was decided to use the space and time for mass teaching by means of film strips. This method could not be expected to gain the same results as those gained by small class teaching with special techniques, but at least the students were being introduced to

English in simple forms. The film strips used were those based on I. A. Richard's Pocket Book of Basic English.

At Aversa, Trani and Capua the position was much better, as space for classrooms was available. A visit to the school at Aversa, for instance, gave no clue to the problems that had lain behind its organization and smooth running.

One entered the many classrooms and observed classes working efficiently under competent teachers. One gained the impression that here was a school where students and teachers had been following their syllabus from one term to the next. Such was the atmosphere in the classrooms.

Then one greeted the students in English and the reply came spontaneously in English. A question in simple English as to when they had begun their lessons brought the surprising answer, 'Last week', and in some classes 'Two days ago !' Then to listen to the teachers putting questions to the students and to hear correct answers in simple good English was astonishing. A few words with the teachers revealed a keen interest in their work and a knowledge of the techniques of language training. Who were these teachers and what was the method employed to teach English ?

The people who were teaching were themselves European migrants. Most of them had never taught before. They were selected on their standard of English, general intelligence and educational background. In some cases the Australian Education Officer was fortunate enough to find trained teachers. The emigrants selected to this work were asked to forego their movement to Australia for three months. Their willingness to do so was appreciated and admired. Later, by arrangement with Australian Immigration Authorities, their two-year employment contract was reduced by these three months.

Time did not allow for training in the complete syllabus as used in Australia together with all its method and techniques, but the instructors were themselves instructed in between class periods in the basic principles of language training, with the result that most of the work of these teachers was effective. The *Basic Way to English* books were used at this stage. The sentence patterns taught in these texts could be extended and applied to a wider vocabulary and both teachers and students were kept within the

bounds of an organized approach to the learning of English. The gradings of the books were suitable to the gradings of language ability found among the students.

There was a fine harmony between what was culled from the Commonwealth Office of Education's approach to the Learning of English and the *Basic Way to English* method and material. Students thus gained some knowledge of English in good forms and were familiar with the sound of spoken English. Their ability to speak and comprehend at least a few simple English sentences was in itself, considering the uncertain period of study, an achievement.

In addition to the language training in these Centres, information on Australia in general and on the Australian way of life was given by means of talks, films and the display of photographs and posters. This important aspect of the work helped to reduce many of the fears of the future in the hitherto unknown land.

Since March 1950 the embarkation of emigrants has been taking place in Germany. Within three weeks of the camp's opening in Delmenhorst, North Germany, the Australian schools were in progress.

Teaching activities soon extended to supplementary camps Aurich and Cuxhaven. Delmenhorst remains the centre, with classrooms, allotted and equipped with the co-operation of the British Central Commission and I.R.O. authorities. In each of the many living-blocks, block Supervisors help by careful allotment of periods of duty so that everyone has the opportunity of having at least an hour's teaching each day—and almost all take it. Delmenhorst teachers are teaching several thousand people daily.

In Aurich—one of the transit camps acting as a 'feeder' to Delmenhorst, migrants from camps in all parts of Germany are accommodated in a former German radar training naval school. Here for the first time the migrants become conscious of a new unity—all the people in this camp are *en route* to Australia and Australian influences become apparent ; all signs and notices have been changed from German to English, all buildings carry, not the usual alphabetic symbol, but the names of Australian cities, and here, for the first time, they find two 'real live' Australian Education Officers in charge of the two camp schools, into which new arrivals are registered,

¹ The success which has attended this first part of the 'Australization' programme has in no small measure been due to the splendid co-operation afforded by the I.R.O. authorities who have done much to assist both administratively and in the provision of facilities.

every passenger complement is different from the other, the Ship's Education Officer must become acquainted with all these factors before classes can be organized. The only thing that is certain is that the passengers cannot be withdrawn from the area for four weeks !

Within four days of leaving port passengers are graded and classes are in progress. Usually passengers report in groups for one hour's instruction each day. Often there are up to ten groups at one time receiving instruction. They are to be found in mess rooms and in many odd corners of the ship. On several occasions classes have been held on unused wellways where the teacher stands at the foot and the students seat themselves on the steps as if in a tiered auditorium.

Attendance returns are conscientiously recorded and behind this lies the fitting in of school times with the free times of the passengers, the seeking out of those who claim to be seasick, the attempt to get mothers to arrange among friends for baby minding, and encouraging activity during the tropical period.

As in the Embarkation Centres, the teachers are selected from the migrants. They give their services without pay. The Education Officer must find time during the day or evening to instruct them in the techniques and subject matter of the course. Often it is difficult to find space in which to conduct these training classes, and it is a not unusual sight to see twelve or fifteen people grouped around and intently listening to the Education Officer in the 'dead-end' of a passage-way.

In the evenings informative talks on Australia are given, and, where space and facilities are available, documentary films are shown with commentaries in English. Community singing of English and Australian songs is another activity which is used with good effect.

With the knowledge that passengers who attend school are under no threat of being removed for four weeks (and dependent on the aptitudes of the teach-

ers), many Education Officers delete the *Basic Way to English* from class teaching and revert to the syllabus and techniques of the Commonwealth Office of Education scheme. About sixty per cent. of the passengers attend classes. It is always expected that with the conditions on ships as already stated, a proportion of the migrants will not attend.

Oral testing on the ships' classes reveals that the migrant has made a sound beginning in the language. He can understand and answer simple questions on time, numbers, positions, his name, family, marital state and age. He can recognize and reply to English greetings. But more than this, he has learned to use many patterns of language on which with time and experience he can build his language.

As the Ships' Education Officer is packing his equipment ready for the next trip and his students come to say their farewells and give thanks in carefully uttered English, he knows that he has done a worth-while job that will be continued in Australia, in the Reception and Holding Centres, in continuation classes, by correspondence tuition and by radio sessions.

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THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH TO NEW AUSTRALIANS OF NON-BRITISH ORIGIN

R. G. Crossley, Senior Lecturer in German in the University of Sydney, Consultant to the Commonwealth Office of Education on Methods of English Teaching

WHEN the Commonwealth immigration authorities decided to bring to Australia large numbers of people from the D.P. camps of Germany and Austria, it was realized that some effort would have to be made to accelerate assimilation by providing opportunities for adult immigrants to learn English. The Commonwealth Office of Education accepted the responsibility and co-operated with the Department of Immigration in the organization and administration of English instruction throughout the Commonwealth and Commonwealth territories.

The first school of instruction in English was opened at the reception and training centre at Bonegilla (Victoria) in December 1947, with the first displaced persons from Europe as its pupils.¹ The teachers for this school were language teachers seconded from the Education Departments of New South Wales and Victoria. The classrooms were army huts fitted with tables and blackboards and equipment for teaching by the direct method. Text-books were not available and so a number of lessons and a 'Newcomer's Reader' were written and supplied to each pupil in Roneoed form. Thirty-two classes of about twenty-five pupils met for three hours per day, six days per week. They were in the centre for about four weeks before going to employment. The results obtained in this group with classes which had no English on arrival convinced us that the teaching was on the right lines and the experience gained in this first school has been the basis for all methods adopted since.

After the pupils of the first school had departed to employment, the chief instructor had returned to the University of Sydney and the teachers had dispersed to their schools in Victoria and New South Wales a new instructional staff had to be recruited and trained in method for the reception and training centres at Bonegilla and Bathurst (N.S.W.). Other centres were later opened in Western Australia and South Australia. A text-book ('English for Newcomers') was

written and is now in its second enlarged edition.² Evening continuation classes were organized in all states to follow up instruction given at the centres. Correspondence lessons and radio programmes were arranged for immigrants in isolated places where classes were not possible. Instruction in English is now given by Australian instructors in Germany before embarkation on I.R.O. ships and during the voyage by Australian education officers assisted by competent migrants. (See previous article.) In Australia the reception and training centres have largely become transit depots and so most of the instructional staff, which did very effective work in them at the height of the scheme, has been transferred to 'holding centres'. State education departments provide schools for the children in these centres and Commonwealth instructors cater for the adults. State departments also provide teachers, classrooms and administration for the continuation classes which are held in or near places of employment throughout the whole of Australia, but the costs are borne by the Commonwealth. Schools of instruction for teacher training are held at regular intervals in all states to ensure that there is some uniformity of method. Text-books, teaching notes and aids and a printed bulletin are distributed to teachers by the Commonwealth Office of Education.³

It was obvious from the start that the classes in this project would be unique among language classes in Australia, not only because the foreign language taught is English, but also because here is no academic project, but an urgent problem directly associated with life. The pupils are learning a new language for immediate use. This fact with all its implications was the basis for all the methods and organization adopted. Words must finally be associated, not with other words, as is so often the case in school language courses, but with life itself. The method used must be direct, natural and oral in order to meet

² *English for Newcomers to Australia*, prepared by the Commonwealth Office of Education for the Department of Immigration. Revised Edition, January 1950.

³ 'Education News', April 1949, for a detailed account of the organization.

¹ cf. 'Education News,' Bulletin of the Commonwealth Office of Education, Sydney, Vol. I, Nos. 6 and 7, for an account of this school.

a situation which is vastly different from the ordinary run of language classes.

There are other differences which are not fundamental but which nevertheless do affect the methods adopted. In the first place most of the pupils are adults and not children. Adults are shy of methods which seem to smack of the infant school, unless they are told why they are being used. Our English classes are, in many instances, composed of many different nationalities, since, even in the reception centres, we prefer to grade classes on a basis of ability (determined by prognosis tests devised by the Commonwealth Office) rather than group pupils of one language. It is, therefore, often difficult to explain to classes what we are aiming at and this must be made clear by the lessons themselves and particularly by their grading. The first lessons should have a great deal of illustration and should also contain matter which is well-known to all students, no matter what their nationality.

All teachers, who have used the oral method, know that results come slowly, that the impatience of the class to achieve something must be curbed if the foundation is to be properly laid. A sense of urgency is much more present in adults, especially adults such as our migrants, whose one aim is to get to work to earn money to start a new life. The material to be taught must therefore be differently arranged from that of school texts. There is none of the leisurely progress of the five year secondary school programme. All of the possible short cuts that can be devised must be used. Grading must obviate the necessity of later remedial work. There is no preliminary course in phonetics or talk on linguistics as the class gets down to work at once. English is heard and used in the first lesson, into which we introduce familiar international features such as the numerals, the clock face and the calendar. In lesson two, easy work on money is given to awaken the realization that this course is English in action. With the first text-book our approach was through the German-English cognate (What is that? That is a ball). This was efficacious when the migrants were chiefly of German-speaking peoples, but had to be abandoned when the Slav groups began to predominate. It was found that many of the Slavs lost heart unless the first lessons were crystal clear and there was easy grading thereafter. Attendance at classes has always been voluntary and

reflects generally the efficacy of the teacher and the methods used. Interest must be maintained by lively, well-illustrated matter which makes steady progress possible by giving a sense of achievement. It is unfortunately impossible to maintain the daily practice of the early reception centre classes in continuation groups, which meet at most twice a week.

During the three years since the establishment of the first classes there have been wide changes in organization, but the attitude towards the basic problem remains the same. There have been modifications because of altered conditions. Certain techniques have been adopted from knowledge of overseas experience but in statements of aims and in recommendations for the attainment of the aims there has been little departure from the lines laid down at the inception of the project. We must have attainable objectives and there must be restriction, particularly of the 'expressive' or 'active' aspects of language, if in the given situation, the teaching is to be effective. The work must suit the average and yet not hinder the more intelligent.

The first and most important aim is to enable our pupils to understand spoken English. This objective is eventually attainable even in an unrestricted form, but we aim first of all at the full comprehension of normal English speech, simplified in vocabulary but not necessarily in thought content. 'Free auditory assimilation' through 'free talks' and 'imperative drill', as advocated by Palmer,¹ play a large part in early work. We also rely on auditory assimilation to semanticize structural words and provide 'sub-conscious consolidation' for words and phrases previously identified.

The second aim is concerned with expression. We want our pupils to speak English freely and with reasonable accuracy of syntax and vocabulary in situations which they would normally meet. Their pronunciation, including accentuation and intonation, should be such that their hearers would find it neither displeasing nor laughable. Being an 'active' aim, it is much harder of attainment and hence must, for practical purposes, be much more modestly stated. If the material is correctly graded in 'semantic units' the pupils should never at any time be using broken English.

The reading and writing of English are sub-

¹ cf. Palmer and Redman, *This Language-Learning Business*, p. 175 ff.

sidary aims and are pursued in the first place because of their value in classroom practice. Vocabulary increases are best made by reading and the kinaesthetic impression helps to 'fix' what is learnt. Continuation classes in the Australian outback may contain pupils at several levels. In such classes reading and writing become more important because of the demands of class organization. In correspondence tuition they are all-important. We aim to teach our pupils to read English with increasing ease so that they may eventually read English of any kind or difficulty, if they have a mind to do so. Oral work by the modified direct method promotes ease of reading by strengthening the 'direct bond'. As to written English, we shall be content if they learn to write English simply and freely with reasonable accuracy in construction and spelling. At no time do we give English spelling the prominence it enjoys in English primary school classes.

The 'English' taught is English as spoken and written in Australia. The standard of pronunciation recommended is 'educated Australian'. It is modern English, since that is task enough without adding the archaic and it is normal English without scholarly overlay and including some colloquialisms since spoken English is given prominence. Slang is mentioned only where its comprehension may be necessary to avoid exploitation of the newcomer (names of coins). It is, for the most part, the colourless language which is the best course for the foreigner in a British country and he is also taught that there are situations in the British way of life where language is superfluous.

The content of the course and the order of presentation have undergone considerable change in the past three years. It was soon found that

our pupils are much more assiduous than their Australian counterparts and much more can be demanded of them. More advanced work can be undertaken than was at first thought necessary. It took some time to decide on the order of teaching verb tenses but we now share Professor Hornby's views that the present continuous, present perfect and immediate future are the best to begin with. The second edition of *English for Newcomers to Australia* contains, in addition to thirty graded lessons, a graded reader with a controlled vocabulary, verbal drills, verb series, substitution tables and conversational drill. A simple reader¹ has been compiled for use in Germany and on ships. In addition to reading matter it contains the dialogues of fifteen 'Real Situations' beginning with the post office and ending with the dramatization of an accident.

The emphasis in both these books is on 'lively human interest'. In all exercises including verb-series and conversation drill there is a large

¹ *I can read English*, prepared by the Commonwealth Office of Education for the Department of Immigration, Sydney, 1950.



Learning a new language for immediate use.

amount of every-day Australian vocational vocabulary* since the method of treatment generally advocated is that of the 'situation method' in which words and phrases are fitted into classroom situations approximating to life. The advance is, as far as possible, by the 'semantic unit'—the sentence allied to a situation. Irregularities are

* The author does not advocate a 'vocabulary island', such as Basic English, for the Australian situation. Vocational vocabulary is important for us because it at once creates interest. There are at least fifteen criteria applicable to the choice of a working vocabulary, e.g. frequency, demonstrability, concreteness, value as structural, range, ease of learning, value for definition, stylistic value, etc. cf. *The Problem of Vocabulary Selection*, issued by the Commonwealth Office of Education, Sydney.

INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE, 1951. The next N.E.F. International Conference will be in England from 31st July to 9th August 1951, in the Teachers' Training College, Chichester, Sussex.

This year's conference is being planned on lines that will give ample opportunity for the making of international friendships through participation in some group activity such as Music; Painting; Pottery; Movement; Poetry; Mathematics; and possibly Playwriting and Drama. These groups will be led by experts, and are intended to enhance teachers' awareness and not as refresher courses in teaching methods. As an alternative, there will be group discussion with a leader as interpreter, run on the lines of the Group Dynamics studies at the Tavistock Institute of Human Relations. In addition to the group work, Mlle Hamaïde will discuss Dr. Decroly's work, and Mr. A. A. Bloom, Headmaster of St. George-in-the-East Secondary Modern School, will describe his work in London's Dockland. The inclusive charge for the nine days will be £9 2s. 6d. Further particulars from J. B. Annand, International Secretary, N.E.F., 1 Park Crescent, London, W.1.

J. B. A.

not deferred since they are generally of high frequency and, in any case, need to be attacked early so that use can make them functional. Strip films and rescripted documentaries are used as supplementary teaching aids. In classroom practice, however, the advance is made early to the question-answer technique not only because it is of the utmost value to our pupil in his daily life but also because it is the chief form of the teacher-pupil situation, the age old method of learning, which, in Australia at least, has not yet yielded to more mechanical methods of instruction.

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HELPING MIGRANT CHILDREN TO SETTLE IN TO SCHOOL LIFE

J. B. Cox, Headmaster, No. 1 Migrant School, Greta Camp, N.S.W.

I WANT to tell you about some of our experiences in teaching migrant children at a Holding Centre in the Hunter River Valley, New South Wales. This Primary School is conducted by teachers of the State Department of Education. They have undergone no special training for this work, nor do they use any foreign language, but have met their peculiar problems with commendable initiative, patience and skill. There are 370 pupils, all New Australians, accommodated in Army huts. Each class-room is 30 ft. by 18 ft. and the average class enrolment is 29.

The families of these children come, *via* Germany or Italy, from various Eastern European countries, and provide a wide range of personalities, languages and national cultures. The older children can remember their flight from advancing armies, or being sent to Germany from occupied areas. The younger ones were born there. Some have come to us from Shanghai.

The mixed group of applicants for enrolment on the first day of term is not the happy, eager company usually seen on such occasions. The faces of parents and children reveal lurking fears, restlessness, past anxieties, distrust for the stranger, uncertainty for the future, and lost self-esteem. These people for years have not had anything even a soul to call their own. They are suspicious of everyone, their fellows and those trying to help them, and even of the pupils in that long line of huts called a school. Is it any wonder that they are ready to kick, or scratch, or hate anyone who even breathes a word against their country?

No information is available about previous schooling. In Germany, in the Displaced Persons camps, most children attended schools under teachers of their respective nationalities, from whom a nationalistic bias was often received. Some had been taught a little English, others German, but their effective knowledge of English was in most cases negligible when they arrived.

Living conditions in the camp are generally satisfactory, though a little crowded. The food is excellent in quality and quantity, plenty of milk and fruit being provided. After a short

time in the camp, the children look very healthy, clean, well-dressed and well-cared-for, but in some cases the school has to see that daily health habits are developed.

Adequate playing fields and equipment help to occupy the children profitably in out-of-school hours, and the bushland and open paddocks around the camp have much to interest them on their rambles. In this mild climate and pleasant environment, the migrants get their first taste of the Australian outdoor life, and the happy freedom of the Australian child.

It is through play that the first steps are made to influence a child and win his confidence and co-operation. On the playing fields with a ball or bat or skipping rope, the teacher can do much through organized games, requiring little or no explanation in English but providing real enjoyment and good fellowship. What child can resist happy movement? In this atmosphere of follow-the-leader, the past and its troubles are forgotten in the joy of playing. Moreover, from the teacher's short commands, the child learns some of his first English words.

This atmosphere is carried into the class-room where the children first learn something of order and routine. All instructions are accompanied by the teacher's appropriate actions and signs, while the child in his turn carries out the actions, and says what he is doing. He learns to 'go out quietly', to 'stand up', to 'pick up the pencil', to say 'Good morning, Miss ——', and various other words of greeting. Thus very soon the pupils learn what to do when usual class-room instructions are given, and they are pleased to show that they can fully understand and obey the customary class-room commands, without fuss.

Each newcomer is allowed a period of settling in, during which he receives as little direct attention as possible. This affords him an opportunity to find his feet, to observe the working of the class and to attune his ear to the sound and tone of the teacher's voice. He sees that the spirit in the class-room is one of mutual co-operation and helpfulness. He sees that the teacher is a very kindly person, interested in the other individuals in the class, interested in him. Opportunity is

taken to help him to understand simple orders. He is given writing materials and guided as to how he is expected to use them. He gains confidence and self-assurance from the fact that the other children began as he is beginning and have got along very well. The sounds in the room, which seemed so strange at first, become more familiar, more coherent—and understanding dawns. There is no laughter when he speaks and makes mistakes—or if there is, it is good-natured, and he does not shrink from it. The teacher encourages him to try again, and discourages the laughter. Somebody is on his side. He is wanted here. The teacher asks him something. He does not quite understand. The drawing on the board and the teacher's gestures make the meaning plain—and the teacher does not mind repeating the question, or going to the trouble of explaining it very carefully and slowly to him. And then someone drops a whispered word of explanation in his own language. His face lights up at the familiar words. Someone was anxious to help him, and even though the teacher discourages this sort of help, because the child must learn to think in English from the start—at least he knows now that there are friends here that feel for him. He will try, and he will win their esteem.

The teaching of English has begun. English is to be the basis of all instruction. It is the avenue to mutual understanding. It is the key to the success of the whole immigration project.

English is taught by the direct method. It cannot be isolated from the other subjects of the curriculum, as foreign language studies are in Secondary Schools. English must be spoken to the pupils and by them, all day and every day, in every activity, in school and out of it. Though the normal curriculum is followed—English, Mathematics, Social Studies, Music, Art, Hand-crafts and Physical Education—every lesson is an English lesson.

A wealth of suitable language forms, much of it conversational in nature, is provided in the nursery rhymes. In these jingles the children recognize themes which they have learned in their own language, and which they recite enthusiastically at home to their parents. In like manner, older children recognize the fairy stories and tales of adventure and can narrate these within a few months. As one moves from class to class one sees rhymes and stories dramatized as delightfully and naturally as all children do

them. We find that the English accent comes most readily when the rhythm is well marked.

Reading is taught throughout the school in the normal way, a combination of sentence, phonic, and look-and-say methods being used. In all classes, elementary readers are used till facility is gained. After twelve months all primary classes are using the normal *School Magazine of Literature*, published monthly by the N.S.W. Education Department for grades III to VI. Standardized reading tests given to a Sixth Grade group showed that most children were slightly below the grade norm, but that several pupils had advanced beyond it.

As the powers of speech and reading develop, we can teach the children to write down their ideas. Many difficulties arise, just as they do wherever composition is taught. The children's keenness helps their learning so that after twelve months they are able to write short descriptions and narratives of most acceptable quality. Anita, aged eleven, wrote of a picture: 'The artist was sitting on a cool shady hill when he painted the picture. I can see a white, winding road running across the plain. In the background are blue, tree-covered hills, with deep valleys between them.'

The School Assemblies each morning help the child to fit into school life. The children are seated on mats in orderly rows on the floor. Each teacher is greeted in turn. The children sing their morning hymns and anthems and repeat a simple prayer.

Into such ceremonies the fabric of our Australian way of life is woven. It is through these gatherings that the New Australians will learn to fit into our school life and later into our society. On special days throughout the year—Empire Day, Anzac Day, Magna Carta Day, Bird Day, Arbor Day, etc., a special programme is arranged, and the parents, clergy and Camp officials are invited to attend. One of the children presides over these assemblies and appropriate addresses based on information gathered in the course of correlated activities in the class-rooms are made by the pupils. Thus they are helped to learn the significance of all that we honour and respect. The presence of the visitors, and their interest and pleasure in all that goes on, deepens the impressions made.

Back in the class-room, the children are eager seekers after knowledge. The emphasis is placed

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READING IN JUNIOR CLASSES

by FRED J. SCHONELL

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on pupil participation, and activity units provide scope for training in group work, co-operation and initiative. In this way the pupils are developing a lively interest in their district and in Australia, the Hunter Valley irrigation, the Australian Aboriginal, industries in the neighbourhood, the local birds, native animals, and such like. In the study of the Murrumbidgee Irrigation Area, for example, pupils wrote to the Irrigation Commission, schools, town and shire clerks, etc. They were delighted to receive in return an excellent supply of informative booklets, detailed information and some very encouraging messages. Models of the M.I.A. were constructed, lecturettes were given, films were shown. This is typical of the work being done throughout the school, and the experience gained is shared with the rest of the school. Visits to factories and farms are arranged to give the pupils first-hand knowledge of the countryside.

Nature Study excursions are of special interest to these children who are rapidly learning to identify fodder grasses and the weeds, local birds, bush flowers, trees and animals, and to study

their life-histories, colours and peculiarities. By the time they are ready to go to work it will be very difficult to label these children 'new chums'.

The Red Letter days for these children are those occasions when they meet and compete against athletic and ball teams from the district. A few migrants stand aloof, but most of them mix with the crowd, make friends and enjoy themselves thoroughly, especially when they come home victorious with a silver cup.

We believe that a singing school is a happy one, and singing plays its part in the rehabilitation of these children. They love to sing and have good voices and good tone. They have learned many Australian songs in unison and in parts. Music has helped with speech; it has provided relaxation, given a sense of growing power and pride and has formed an invaluable link with the homes.

Problems other than language present themselves. Most parents have very little contact with the staff. Sometimes the only time we discover that the parent is aware of the work the school is doing for their children is when they

leave the Camp. Then they unfailingly come to say goodbye and to express their gratitude and appreciation to the teachers for the splendid progress made by their children.

We have problem children, too, just as there are in any school. Some lack parental training and supervision, some have acquired anti-social habits—stealing, lying and truancy—some are unwanted in their broken homes. By sympathetic, firm but kindly treatment, by the teacher's patience and perseverance, and of course without corporal punishment, most of these problem children within twelve months come to fit into the corporate life of the school.

Such then is the brief story of some of the things we are doing to help our New Australian pupils to fit worthily into school life. We have tried to give them a knowledge of our language, of Australia itself, of the spirit of its pioneers, of the wealth of its industries, of the beauty of its bushlands, and the riches of its literature and its songs. We have tried to encourage them to play our games and to 'play the game', to study the songs of the birds and to know what is right and good and true. And we have tried to give them

glimpses of the possibilities which the future holds for them in this land of their adoption.

What are the immediate results? A new buoyancy, born of hope and confidence, has taken the place of tension and fear. We have seen untidiness and disorder in the pupils' books replaced by neatness, orderliness, and pridefulness. We speak to them now in the normal way and without gesticulation. We see them falling into orderly lines and marching off smartly to their class-rooms. We listen to the singing floating from the class-rooms. It is the singing and the spirit of Australian children. We watch a group of children playing an Australian game. They are speaking English.

We have news from Primary Schools that our pupils are fitting into normal routine with just a little special guidance. Large groups of boys sent on to the High School are taking their places more than satisfactorily in the School's activities. One boy has been elected a prefect. Several gained first places in general subjects at the half-yearly examination. These small pointers give us assurance that our plans and best endeavours are meeting with success.



'Fitting into normal school routine'—Old and New Australians at the Lutheran College, Adelaide.

THE FRUITS OF ISOLATION

Helen Heney, Dip. Soc. Sc., 1938; Almoner's Certificate, 1939; Spent 7 years Central Europe; Returned to Germany, 1945-47 as welfare officer with UNRRA; Active N.S.W. in migrant assimilation. At present testing psychologist, works with migrant children

THE present swing in immigration policy is not sentimental or altruistic, but is the outcome of changed political pressures in Asia and our Near North. Political leaders have realized that as a result of recent events in South East Asia, the isolation that was formerly our strength has become a weakness, and that our small population must be augmented as quickly as the Australian economy can absorb newcomers. But public opinion at home has not kept pace with new world conditions; governments of both parties have worked out a far-reaching assimilation policy, but the Commonwealth is meeting unforeseen difficulties. The recalcitrance of some members of the public is the result of our long formative isolation; the resistance of some trade unions is political; that of others economic. But only an alteration in public opinion in the mass of people can overcome the stumbling block.

Assimilation is a two-way affair

For assimilation to be successful, double interpretation is needed. We must explain and justify our way of life to newcomers to make them willing to adopt it instead of their own, on the one hand, and, on the other, the historical, political and economic background behind newcomers' acts and attitudes must be presented to us in a way we can understand if we are to accept and like the individuals practising them. The first is being done so far as our propaganda reaches (which, unfortunately, is not so far as was at first hoped); the second is hardly being attempted.

Australian attitudes as result of isolation

A certain unfriendliness, chiefly directed towards certain national groups, and seldom surviving personal contact with individual foreigners, exists in Australia to-day; it is sufficiently strong to threaten the full success of the new policy. The fault does not lie only with the present generation, but goes back through several decades of life in a distant continent.

Perhaps less than any civilized nation, Australians have had to learn to be tolerant. Visitors have been chiefly from Great Britain, and even from these we have resented criticism. Dissatisfied

British migrants usually return home, removing their unfavourable attitude from our notice. The number of resident foreign nationals has always been small; the less educated but more numerous have been left to learn our ways as best they might or to form foreign colonies. The more prosperous businessmen and consular body have for the most part been very ready to meet us on our own ground, speak our language and share our activities.

Worse even for the formation of our attitude than lack of bracing criticism has been the proximity of Asia; misunderstanding of the real meaning of the White Australia Policy has produced a contempt for the hardworking Asiatic groups (mostly of the coolie class) which have obtained a precarious foothold here. There is in places some tendency to confuse dark haired, dark skinned settlers from the Mediterranean area with brown skinned Polynesians, and to regard them as 'natives'.

Two other factors contributed to the xenophobia. The large migrant groups—Greek, Italian, and Maltese—were, for the most part, from the poorer classes of their respective countries, and have been conspicuous for their tireless industry and strong family feeling, which enables them to monopolize certain trades such as cafe-keeping and retail sale of fruit. Some Australians resent, but few copy, their hard work, which has enabled them to bring out non-English speaking relatives, making each shop seem a centre of foreign life.

At the other end of the scale, but curiously producing the same reaction, was the migration from Central Europe between 1934 and the war. These newcomers, capable business or professional people, the latter debarred from their former callings by our laws or the language difficulty, and all desperately anxious to re-establish themselves, have been willing to explore new trades and try their hands at novel kinds of work, and have created by their very enterprise a bad impression on their slower moving Australian rivals, who feel their own standards and markets threatened by competition.

That such attitudes must be combated and modified is obvious, but the Australian people

find themselves faced with several difficulties when they try to do so. Among many, possibly the majority of, progressive people the will is there, but even so, the position has some discouraging aspects.

Difficulties arising from isolation

(1) *Language.* This has two sides—we do not speak their language or an international substitute; many migrants make no attempt to learn English.

Very few Australians have a good speaking knowledge of any major European language. French, the main language taught in our schools, is not frequently known by our migrants; even so, few of us can do more than read it, as we have little opportunity to speak it or accustom our ear to hear it spoken. Those Australians who are fluent in German or Russian usually have other qualifications governing their employment and are not available as teachers or interpreters. In fact, it has not been found possible to insist on knowledge of even one foreign language in filling positions dealing with migrants. Still more serious is the fact that many Australians, having no experience of trying to meet ordinary life problems in a foreign country, do not even realize the difficulty this ignorance creates in their relations with the insecure, weary victims of the war years. From this lack of direct communication rises the constant risk that interpreters with strong political or religious affiliations can use their privileged position to help newcomers favourable to this group. Where national rivalry runs high (sometimes right under our unsuspecting Australian noses) some migrants feel (and express, to people they trust) their resentment at the predominance of certain nationals in positions where they can influence Australians in shaping assimilation policy. Some well informed Australians are even ignorant of this barrier to understanding, others underestimate its importance and fail to see the power it gives to ambitious and opportunist elements among the newcomers.

On the other side, lack of will to learn our language is increased by the main obstacle to our assimilation plans—lack of normal housing facilities. Women in holding camps, men in barracks with their compatriots, children in holding camp schools, and women living on sufferance in unwilling Australian homes have

little will and incentive to attend language classes or make social contacts among Australians. Language pockets are already forming, and national clubs becoming an important social element.

(2) *Lack of Knowledge.* Equally difficult is the lack of Australians with first-hand knowledge of European conditions, especially the very tangled history of the last twenty-five years. Teachers, employment officers, social workers, hospital almoners and employers are ignorant of just those facts about the migrant which are the basis of good relations between teacher and pupil, social worker and client and personnel officer and employee. Ignorance leads to positive mistakes in handling which are galling to the sensitive newcomer and so prejudicial to good relations, and which tend to make him feel we are insincere in our protestations of friendliness and interest. In the case of real problems—children failing to adjust in our schools, sick persons needing hospital care, and the whole field of the neurotic or psychotic personality, lack of correct knowledge and the insight it brings can precipitate the very crisis we are striving to avoid. One obvious class of these, for instance, is the child from behind the Iron Curtain, who may regard our choice of a school (based on assessment of ability) as continuation of the policy of segregation in less popular schools from which he suffered before migration. This needs considerable knowledge to explain satisfactorily so as to bring child and parent to accept an unwelcome decision.

Another case where our ignorance of the migrant's background may bring about a bad adjustment is membership of trade unions. Some of the first Estonian and Latvian migrants regarded trade unions as savouring of that Communism they dreaded and had fled from at such cost. Employment officers, not realizing this, were angered by the, to them, unreasonable attitude, and there was no one to explain to either side. This problem has been dealt with more fully on page 42 ('The Migrant and the Community').

Yet another problem needing patience, insight—and a common language for explanations—has been caused by the desire of persons previously penniless and dependent on charity to earn and enjoy the unlimited spending possibilities presented by our well stocked shops. It has not been easy to explain that the restriction of

working hours, fixation of a minimum wage and the desirability of adhering to these and not accepting cut rates of wages or private agreements detrimental to labour laws, were all things designed for the protection and well-being of the employee. What we regard as an achievement in social security they look on as something to be evaded. This causes endless misunderstanding.

The Positive Side of the picture

Enough has been said to paint a depressing picture and to suggest that the Australian plan for migrant assimilation is almost impossible to realize. Fortunately, nothing could be further from the truth. The scheme will not show results as soon as was hoped; much may remain for the first generation on paper only; but there exist many strengths inherent in that mythical but much invoked thing 'The Australian Way of Life' which can be counted on for positive good. No sketch which did not enumerate at least some of these would present anything like a true picture.

Hopeful Aspects

These include (1) *The youth of many migrants*: A large number of foreign born children of considerable promise are already at school in all states. Within a few years they will be both completely bi-lingual and Australian-educated, and ready to permeate the community, breaking up small groups by inter-marriage and fitted to help both Australian and foreign adults to a better understanding of each other. It is to be hoped that they will be used to the full by a generous system of scholarships and cadetships to recruit them into employment where the fullest use can be made of their talents.

(2) *Excellent calibre of many migrants.*

As so many of the foreign migrants were available for resettlement for ideological reasons, people of liberal progressive attitude and courage and adaptability are much more numerous than would be normal in any unselected group. Among them we have natural leaders and persons fitted to pioneer in all fields.

(3) *Welcome in Country districts.*

The great assimilation difficulties will be found among older married women in the big cities. In the country, where newcomers are welcome, New Australians will be no exception, since Australians as a whole are a restless, wandering people who do not readily tend to form closed communities.

The Maze of Schools

DICKIN MOORE

Richard is a schoolmaster, and this book is the record of his side of a correspondence with a friend. It presents in entertaining fashion a charming picture of a man slightly out of his depth, and debating the problems of education, of schools and of children, and as such, it makes an unusual and interesting account of a schoolmaster's experience of his profession.

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THE BODLEY HEAD

(4) *Natural Scatter.*

Many native Australians of all occupations tend to cling to, or drift towards, the coastal strip and big towns, thus leaving good openings for ambitious people of all types to find work in country districts and small inland towns, as well as the less developed areas. This has been true in the case of doctors, and should be more marked now when the earlier barriers to medical registration has been removed.

(5) *Individual contacts.*

Talks with average people show that a large number of New Australians have found themselves congenial friendships based on common interests, the same type of work, sport, hobbies, etc. These people unfortunately tend not to be vocal, and their successful assimilation does not make news, so they are usually overshadowed by the more spectacular but less numerous failures highlighted in the press.

(6) *Activities of voluntary bodies.*

In any highly complex society, there are many ties running through and over the barriers of language and nationality, and these will always

draw newcomers into congenial circles. Even before the organization of the New Settlers Leagues after the Immigration Conference early in 1950, there were many voluntary agencies in all states doing valuable but little publicized work. Church bodies are given the names of settlers who mark their affiliation on their papers, youth groups, cultural bodies and social and sports clubs have already a history of worth-while activity, and their scope will tend to increase as the better assimilated join in the work among the more recent comers.

I AM A NEW AUSTRALIAN¹

I CAME to Australia to settle here permanently and to let my family become Australians, if not in the first, then in the second generation. But many New Australians came here with no such intention, and have not up till now changed their minds. Their attitude seems to be unfair towards Australia and also, in the long run, highly unwise and harmful from the point of view of these newcomers themselves. I should therefore like to suggest some general ways in which they could be helped to change their attitude.

'*Utinam falsus vates sim*', but unless the Australian Government undertakes adequate steps, Australia will be faced in the near future with a difficult national minorities' problem like that which was continually causing many grave troubles in pre-war Europe. It is quite obvious that the only alternative is, if possible, the quick assimilation of all non-British settlers; of course, by fair democratic methods.

If you intend changing bush into a tillable field, before sowing grain you must remove all obstacles such as trees with roots, then plough and possibly fertilize the soil. The bush never changes into a cornfield by itself. Similarly with assimilation—though the fertilization in the latter case may start even before removing trees and the soil must be made willing to accept seed.

As things are now, the greatest obstacle to the assimilation of most New Australians, especially from Eastern Europe, apart from their linguistic difficulties, is their overgrown national consciousness. This is to many of them another religion, a faith which they fanatically believe in and think should be handed on from generation to genera-

Looking at both sides, the plus and the minus, it can be said that the process will take time. The paradox is, that the greatest part of the missionary effort will be to convert our own people. This generation will have to pay for the long years when, because relatively few and very distant, we enjoyed the fruits of geographical isolation and let it turn to dislike of things unlike ourselves. Unless we now reverse our policy fast, we may come to find those same fruits bitter at home and abroad. The task will not be easy. But it can be done, and I believe that it will.

tion. It follows that even sending their children to Australian schools would in many cases not be of great effect since schools do not and should not use any antidote against parents' spiritual influence upon their children. Consequently in the first place the parents should be 'converted'. Using the method '*similia similibus*', i.e. replacing nationality by nationality, would not work except for a small percentage. It would be like proposing to an early Christian to change his faith. Apostates have been condemned in the past, and so in our case those who desire assimilation are being blamed and branded as traitors by their countrymen. Provoking those people to court such social ostracism is both unfair and of doubtful value. Thus the only way is to have it done on a broader ethical basis. These men must first be cured of their nationalism by the remedy of ideas of universal brotherhood, 'world citizenship' and 'cosmopolitanism'. If you succeed in doing this, they might then accept the motto: '*ubi bene ibi patria*'. And since Australia is a country of plenty and a country with a future, if only some other below-mentioned conditions are fulfilled, these people will desire to remain here instead of considering this country as a temporary asylum or a place where their European nationalist ideals can be handed down from father to son, so constituting 'strange substances' in Australia's body.

A further point would be to create psychologically favourable conditions towards acceptance of 'Australianism' which should be of course quite different from all other 'isms'. This can be done only by making people feel economically and legally more secure than they felt when in pre-war Europe.

¹ This was written from Scheyville, an Immigration Department Holding Centre. The author wishes to remain anonymous, but any letters will be forwarded to him from *The New Era* office.—E.D.

Dealing with such a complicated but at the same time urgent problem the Commonwealth Government should in many respects abandon its liberal principle of *laissez-faire* and start planned and centralized action.

Something like a Central Assimilation Committee could be appointed composed of both 'old' and 'New Australians'. This Committee might take into consideration, among others, the following facts and suggestions:

(1) Holding Centres and hostels are like foreign multi-national republics in Australia, almost isolated from the rest of the country. They must be liquidated as soon as possible. But before this can be achieved the opportunity should be taken at least to achieve 'cosmopolitan' re-education of the inhabitants.

This must be carried out by a carefully selected, social-minded staff of New Australians themselves. English classes for adults must be widened and some incentive given for attendance and making progress. Greater stress should be also laid on pre-school education of children under skilful supervision of Australian kindergarten teachers. Holding Centre school children must be given more opportunity to contact Australian school children during holidays, camping, parties and excursions. A special 'know your new homeland' programme for both adults and children could be also started.

(2) A house of one's own is a very important factor in the assimilation process. Loving a country while in isolated holding centres which in many respects recall those hated D.P. camps in Europe is a pretty difficult thing. But on the other hand, getting this 'house of one's own' is being left exclusively to the private initiative of every New Australian, who encounters in most cases great difficulties owing to his ignorance of the country, language and other conditions and circumstances. So effective help must be granted him, possibly by starting a scheme of 'Home building for and by New Australians', financed by means of long-term loans. There are skilled builders among D.P.'s who are now being em-

ployed in unskilled work, and clay for bricks as well as other raw materials are at hand in Australia. The Government could prevent a possible density of newcomer's settlements by spreading them all over the country.

(3) Sending all adults regardless of their skill to unskilled jobs for two years may be in many respects justified with the possible exception of the above-mentioned house builders, as well as doctors and dentists, referred to below. In some cases it has even a deeper educational meaning and teaches some snobs to respect all honest work and their fellow men, regardless of their occupation. Besides, after the two years' contract, they are free to choose more suitable jobs.

But the problem is quite other with youths between the ages of 16 and 21 years. Many of them are intelligent, capable and sometimes advanced students. Being sent for two years into the bush, to farm or do other exclusively manual work, means, at least in the opinion of these boys and girls, saying good-bye to their life-dreams of further study. They know that when these best and last studying years are over, when they have forgotten all they knew and lost the habit of learning—no other possibility will remain to them except to continue as bushman, farmhand or domestic. In their misery they may remember anti-migration propaganda of Communists about 'white slaves', or at any rate they suffer from some grave psychological depression or dream about U.S.A., where such D.P. youth is at once

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being given opportunities for further study. And please do not forget that those boys and girls are just the very next generation of Australia !

(4) There is a common opinion among New Australians that the average level of Australian doctors' and dentists' skill is lower than that of Europeans. Apart from this perhaps unjustified feeling, by not allowing the New Australian doctors and dentists to work in their profession, the authorities here are increasing the shortage of medical men in Australia since her population is being steadily increased by refugees from Europe. The attitude of the British Medical Association in this matter seems to reflect exclusively selfish professional interests and fear of competition, rather than the real interests of the community. It does not help to promote assimilation, anyway.

It does not help to argue that an Australian doctor in Europe would be treated the same, for this means making a difference between 'we' and 'they' and considering 'your' doctors not as New Australians but as quite ordinary foreigners. If New Australians are eventually to be Australians, no such discrimination should be made to their disadvantage.

The same principle should be adopted in respect of other European degrees, provided that other conditions are fulfilled, such, for instance, that a European lawyer must be acquainted with Australian law besides having a full command of the English language.

(5) It is a well-known fact that a farmer on his own land is more 'adscriptus' than a townsman. There are many farmers among D.P's. Australia is overpopulated in cities but underpopulated in the country. This may cause undesirable economic consequences in the future. Why not give those European farmers land on convenient instalments ?

(6) While families with many children were mostly encouraged to emigrate to Australia, their economic position here is much worse than that of childless families. They cannot even dream about saving money for building homes of their own or about renting a flat (landlords generally dislike small children). Thus they are practically sentenced to lifelong separation. Special provision should be made for young families in a 'House-building for New Australians' scheme.

(7) In order to be naturalized, a New Australian must prove during five years that he is desirable.

Then he may or may not become a 'full' Australian. A quite reasonable provision for an individual foreigner who comes to a foreign country to try his chances, but not for a mass of people brought to settle a new continent.

Though a 'naturalization not accepted' may occur rarely, nevertheless a state of uncertainty is created for the long period of five years. Being not a 'fully empowered' person must cause some feelings of insecurity and inferiority and must often prevent people from making definite decisions as to their future.

Would it not be possible to enable practically every New Australian, after his satisfactory two years' contract, to become an Australian citizen if he desires to ? Unsocial elements would betray themselves during this two-year period. On the other hand nothing attaches a man to a country so much as citizenship. It may also ease the situation in case of another war.

These are almost all the 'failures' of the Commonwealth Government's carrying out of its tremendous immigration programme for former European D.P's. Its positive results are far more numerous and effective than its imperfections. I would not specify its merits because the object of this article is rather to point out what more could be done in order to further perfection of the whole work. But, notwithstanding, I cannot help stating that many of us feel that by starting and carrying out this scheme the Commonwealth Government has been not only long sighted about Australia's future, but also has expressed the high ethical standard, generosity and charity of the Australian people.

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THE MIGRANT AND THE COMMUNITY

THIS article is based on the experience and observation of a Migration Study Group composed of members of the Australian Association of Social Workers, N.S.W. Branch, and of assimilated New Australians who have been active in helping with the adjustment problems of other newcomers. Social workers, because of the very nature of their work, probably see more of the frustrations and hardships than of the happier aspects of assimilation. Nevertheless, the cases selected here illustrate problems which are met so frequently that social workers believe they are fairly widespread.

They have been grouped as follows :

- (1) Cases where the migrant's difficulty arises from the organization of the local community.
- (2) Cases where the peculiar hardship lies in the fact of being a stranger in the community. This hardship is doubly severe when the migrant is also handicapped by ignorance of our language and customs.

It has been decided to omit problems of personality maladjustment and mental disorder. The experience of social workers with migrants manifesting such disturbances suggests that, while wartime and migration difficulties have been precipitating or contributing factors, the causes are earlier in origin. Along with the native-born population in this group, the newcomer needs specialized facilities for diagnosis and treatment.

1) Difficulties associated with the organization of the local community.

(a) Housing :

It is not always easy to make a clear distinction between the hardships of Australians and New Australians in matters such as housing, or to see just where being a migrant adds to the hardship. Here are three cases illustrating the housing shortage as the greatest stumbling block in the way of the migrant's successful assimilation :

Mr. A., a Yugoslav, arrived in Australia 18 months ago, and is employed in Sydney. He likes his work and he lives at a hostel for single men, paying £3 per week for shared room, cut lunch and meals in the mess hall.

His wife and two small boys are in a government Holding Centre 300 miles inland. It is very expensive for Mr. A. to visit them, and he can make the trip only once a month.

Mr. A. resents paying £3 per week for board, since that for his wife and children costs in all only 30/- per week. Neither Mr. or Mrs. A. can accept that this is only possible through government subsidy.

Mrs. A., though knowing before landing, that the family might be separated, did not realize how great the distance might be ; she has no household responsibilities, and plenty of time to speculate on how Mr. A. spends his free time. Isolated as she is, she finds it difficult to believe Mr. A. when he says he is trying hard to find accommodation in Sydney. She is irritable and suspicious when he does come home, and they both feel that this separation is threatening the stability of their marriage.

Mr. B. and family, from England, paid their own fares, thinking that their four children would have more opportunities in Australia. They did not believe before sailing what they heard of housing shortages—after all, Australia lost no houses through bombing !

Their small capital soon dwindled with the settling of boarding-house bills ; there was work in plenty in Mr. B's trade, but even the high wages it carried would not cover board for a family of six. When he heard of a small house in the country, with few conveniences, and with no opening for his trade, he felt obliged to accept it. Mrs. B., unused to country life and housework without amenities, and Mr. B., doing less-skilled and less-well-paid work that he is accustomed to, both wonder if their decision to emigrate was a wise one.

Mrs. C., an Australian widow with a daughter working, had a son who married an Italian girl when he was stationed in Italy. Mrs. B. welcomed the bride, and the young couple got a flat temporarily. The bride's mother in Italy, also widowed, wanted to join her daughter and did so just when the owner required the flat. Mrs. C. and her daughter agreed to take all three, and the arrangement at first was welcomed because it helped with the rent.

In practice it soon became irksome. The old

Italian woman learnt little English, and she and her daughter talked Italian until Mrs. C. felt a stranger in her own home; their food habits did not suit the Australian women, so two meals had to be cooked. The son had a return of earlier stomach trouble, which his mother attributed to the amount of oil his wife used in cooking. All the people liked each other personally, but their ways of life were not compatible. Had they been living separately, friction would probably never have developed.

COMMENT: Problems of this type are not confined to migrants, but whereas Australians have been aware for some years of the crisis in housing, the majority of migrants appear to arrive in this country with no proper understanding of the position. There is no early solution to the housing problem, but more stress on the realities of the housing situation by Australia House and the selection teams in Europe might help to minimize the frustrations and disappointments it inevitably causes.

(b) *Employment:*

D, aged 17, came out here alone from a D.P. camp. After a stay in a Reception Centre he was placed in a boot-factory, whereas he wanted to learn to be a mechanic. He is unhappy in his work and threatens to run away. He maintains stoutly that he signed no work contract, and believes that he is being unfairly treated. A fellow-national has encouraged him in this view. He is getting more unsettled, and there are still some months of his contract to run.

E, a former clerk from Latvia, aroused the sympathy of one of the Employment Officers, who, for his period of directed employment placed him with a group of Australians, all members of a Union. These men considered they were doing E a favour, in accepting him as a co-worker, and were angry and disgusted when he stated publicly that he would never join a Union. In his broken-English, he expressed himself forcibly, and tempers grew hot. It was found advisable to transfer him to other employment.

More serious has been the recent case cited in the press, where a powerful and important union has decided by ballot not to allow New

Australians to join, and not to work with them. The matter has not yet been satisfactorily settled, with consequent loss of useful and productive work.

COMMENT: These examples show some of the difficulties in employment. In the case of D., unwilling to keep to his Government contract because he resents the delay in training for his chosen employment, adjustment can probably be made by sympathetic handling. The case of E. is typical of many newcomers who do not understand the nature and function of Australian Unionism, and the difficulties arising from this misunderstanding can best be solved by better interpretation by Immigration, Employment and Trade Union authorities.

The fear of migrant labour reducing living standards is a traditional one in this country, and is evident in both trades and professions. The situation has been further complicated by political beliefs operating against the acceptance of non-British migrants.

In some unions with the least margin for skill, and where competition for entry is less keen, new settlers have been accepted, and some professions, too, have been helpful and encouraging to the newcomer. In other trades and professions the membership of new Australians has been disallowed, or greatly discouraged.

(2) Some difficulties associated with the migrant's strangeness.

(a) *Language:*

As in the case of Mrs. C., where the Italian widow had no incentive to learn English because of her daughter's presence, so in Holding Centres and labour groups of one nationality, there is a tendency on the part of New Australians to rely on a few of their numbers to act as interpreters and spokesmen in any relationships with Australians. Even where it seems an obvious advantage to learn English many newcomers will not make the effort to do so.

For instance, Mrs. F., who told a member of the study group that she always spoke Polish with her husband and German with her employer, left the shopping to her husband, and after two years still sees no reason to avail herself of English classes. When it was pointed out to her that she spoke one foreign language well, e.g. German, she explained that she had

been forced to learn this. Another man in a similar situation stressed the same point, 'Under the Nazis one had to learn the language.'

COMMENT: It is difficult to see how this problem might be overcome. In spite of the courses made available for the learning of English, and the publicizing of these facilities in all Reception Centres, the response from migrants is poor. Different solutions have been formulated: the incentives to learn might be increased (e.g. lessening the period in directed employment, hastening naturalization); the conditions of study made more attractive (e.g. lessons during working hours, more comfortable accommodation, less formal atmosphere); classes might be made compulsory and the learning of English a *condition* of naturalization. Incentives and compulsory measures, however, would tend to favour the more intelligent and better educated migrant, and those whose employment and location made attendance at classes easier. Making schoolrooms and classes more attractive for evening lessons in English would mean a large financial outlay, and

it is doubtful if the education authorities would entertain such a plan, or if the results would justify the expenditure involved. (Here it might be mentioned that the inadequacy of school buildings and equipment has long been a serious stumbling block to the development of adult education in Australia.) The holding of English classes in working hours would most probably be unacceptable to employer groups as well as to Trade Unions.

A point that is overlooked by those who deplore the New Australian's lack of response to classes in English is that in adjusting himself to a totally new environment and employment to which he is unaccustomed, the migrant's learning processes are exhausted by the end of the working day. More could be done by voluntary agencies, it is thought, in providing informal social groups to help the newcomer with his English, and at the same time make him feel more at home in the community.

(b) *Customs and credentials:*

Most D.P's now have no records, references or credentials to prove their qualifications and

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experience. This makes it difficult for them to establish themselves in jobs for which they have the requisite training and skill. This situation is often further complicated by the fact that many trades, and the particular skills they embrace, vary from country to country, and trade terms, equipment, tools and measurements likewise vary. Trade customs are also different, e.g., many migrants do not know Australian trade requirements in the matter of owning tools.

Such was G., a skilled carpenter, who was directed to employment with a firm demanding a high degree of skill in the manufacture of articles of quality. G. was given a trial, and the firm agreed to employ him, but it was found that he had no tools, having sold them abroad to get pocket money for the voyage. No funds were available to advance money for the immediate purchase of tools, and it was considered unfair to treat him differently from local tradesmen who had to buy their own kits. G. has been put into unskilled work until he can afford to buy the tools his trade requires.

COMMENT: It is to be hoped that as our experience of these problems grows, trade tests will be devised for newcomers, who may then be issued with some sort of certificate to indicate their qualifications to employers. Funds for a kit of tools, under agreement to repay, might be arranged by the Immigration Department, to avoid the wasteful use of skilled men on unskilled work.

(c) *Difficult age groups:*

H., an Estonian of 16 years, came to Australia with his father, but the two were soon separated when the father was placed in employment. H. was kept for a long while in a Reception Centre, and then drafted to heavy unskilled work, from which he soon absconded. The father was probably absorbed in his own problems, because he seemed indifferent to the boy's situation. The Employment Officer tried to trace H., who was in a serious position, as he had laid himself open to deportation for breaking his work contract. The boy was eventually traced, with the help of a fellow-countryman; he had discovered that he could get better-paid work through his own efforts, and was in fact doing two jobs—one from 8 a.m. to 4 p.m., and another from 6 p.m. to 10 p.m., earning good income which he was

saving to buy a business. He reacted badly to being forced back to heavier, less well-paid work.

COMMENT: This is not exclusively a migrant problem; many young Australians do the same thing. But the newcomers generally have an urgent desire for security and independence; they are attracted to employment which offers big money, and they are prepared to work hard. Without sympathetic and skilled employment guidance the young newcomer, particularly if he is without helpful family influence and advice, is in danger of sacrificing the later benefits from training and vocational planning for the immediate goal of big money earned in unskilled and dead-end jobs, besides endangering his health where he takes on two jobs.

(d) *Separated couples:*

Mrs. I., a Latvian, lives with her two small children in a Holding Centre. Her husband worked in Sydney, but there was no chance of accommodation for her near his job. He spoke English well, was fond of social life, and with a good singing voice and a pleasing personality, he was quickly making friends with Australians. Mrs. I. was surrounded with people of her own nationality; she had no impetus to learn English; she was very unhappy, acutely homesick, and resented and resisted the challenge of adjusting to life in a new country.

COMMENT: The housewife, particularly if she has young children, will always be harder to assimilate than her husband because in her daily life she has fewer opportunities than he to meet and mix with Australians. Her difficulties are accentuated if she is living in a Holding Centre almost entirely isolated from Australian contacts, and with the added hardship of being separated from her husband.

The husband, working with Australians, is consciously and unconsciously learning their ways, but he is often happy to relax at night in the familiar national environment re-created by his wife. She is thus encouraged to stay unassimilated while he is building up experiences and interests in which she has no opportunity to share. This situation might be met by women's groups inviting New Australians to participate in their activities and to visit their homes.

Like most parents, newcomers are very responsive to any interest taken in their children,

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and from this point of common interest the New Australian housewife might be helped to share in and contribute to community life.

(e) *The Aged:*

Mrs. J., a Ukrainian peasant, whose age makes it hard to place in employment, continues to live in a Holding Centre, in charge of her 13-year-old grandson. The boy's father died since his arrival here, and his mother, about to re-marry, is not living in the camp. The boy is not learning much English, and this may prevent his going to Secondary school next year. Mrs. J. is too old and set in her ways to learn English, to change her habits, or to understand more than the physical care of the boy. She seems to encourage him to stay unassimilated, because of fear of losing her only companion. It seems likely that she will spend the rest of her life in a Holding Centre, or in some group of her own nationals, and the boy will have little chance of normal development.

COMMENT: This again seems to point strongly to the need for recreational groups. Although persons of fifty years and upwards, especially women, will cling to their own traditions and

customs, their warm acceptance by Australians into clubs and groups, could do much to make conditions easier for them, so lessening their need to depend on and impede the younger members of the family.

SUMMARY

These cases illustrate only a few of the difficulties which newcomers are encountering. In the area of health there are many more problems, and doctors and medical social workers stress the need for better interpretation of our health habits to new settlers, of the use of pre-natal and post-natal clinics and baby health centres, of methods of treatment for some diseases, and of immunization and inoculation for children, etc.

As our experience in migration increases these problems are becoming better focussed and understood. They point to the need for continuing modification and improvement of immigration policy and administration.

More important, perhaps, than any government measure is the need for sympathetic and active help from Australian citizens, who as neighbours and in their recreational and cultural groups can assist the newcomer to adjust to and enjoy life in the country of his adoption.

VOLUNTARY ORGANIZATIONS AND THE GOVERNMENT

Mollie Booth, Board of Social Studies, Sydney University

THE Australian Citizenship Convention called by the Commonwealth Government and held in Canberra in January 1950, represented the first attempt to establish a broad basis of co-operation between Commonwealth and State governments and voluntary organizations for the welfare and assimilation of migrants. To many people, this move for co-operation, requiring for its effectiveness the leadership of the Commonwealth Government, was long overdue.

The Government had made it clear with the announcement of its immigration policy, five years earlier, that the implementation of the immigration scheme on the scale envisaged would require the full support of all sections of the community.

Leaders of many voluntary organizations, particularly the social agencies experienced in family welfare, child welfare and recreation, were able

to grasp quickly the social implications of the scheme. Some organizations had had migration experience, although their activities had been curtailed by the war or in some instances were no longer needed. Many others had had experience during the war years, not only in providing services for men and women of the Forces, of Australian and other nationalities, and in caring for evacuees, but in adapting their resources and mobilizing citizen support to meet the exigencies of wartime situations. The immigration scheme, it is true, presented different kinds of needs and problems, but as a result of their wartime experience, voluntary agencies were sensitive to, and imaginative in their anticipation of, the difficulties that newcomers would encounter, and the kind of community effort that would be necessary to ensure their assimilation.

Their interest stimulated, voluntary organiza-

tions sought information about the immigration scheme from official sources and offered their support and help, but they received little or no encouragement and as time went on many became frustrated and critical of the Government.¹

Earlier Government recognition of the rich source of experience and support available from the fields of voluntary activity might have helped to foster positive attitudes towards the immigration scheme. Many organizations reflected the fears and hostilities prevalent in the community, e.g. towards admitting migrants at all because of the housing shortage and economic threats; towards foreign migrants; political fears and the alleged predominance of migrants with particular religious affiliations. Many of these fears have been disproved and hostilities diminished. It is fair to say now that the Immigration Programme has been accepted by the community.

On the other hand there was perhaps too little appreciation of the magnitude of the Government's task. Investigation of migration sources, the planning of intake into employment, the determining of migration conditions and priorities, the development of agreements with the United Kingdom, with the International Refugee Organization and later other countries, as well as negotiations for shipping, all this was basic to the operation of the scheme. Much depended, too, on the co-operation and support which the Government first had to seek from the Australian State governments, from the trade unions where traditional antagonism towards migration and political biases presented difficulties, and from employers' organizations. Plans for the co-ordinating of migration machinery operated by



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the Commonwealth and State governments consumed many months.

Organizations nominating migrants from the United Kingdom and those encouraging nominations through their memberships were the first to come into close touch with the State immigration departments. Child migration agencies such as Dr. Barnardo's Homes, the Big Brother Movement, Fairbridge Farm School and Northcote Homes Trust, anxious to resume their activities, were soon in the field with nominations. These agencies operated under a new act (Guardianship of Children Act, December, 1946) which required of them a defined relationship with State Child Welfare authorities, to whom the legal guardianship of children was delegated by the Commonwealth Minister for Immigration. Several religious denominations also planned to bring out British children to their homes and hostels.

Most of the Churches set up immigration sections within their organizations and encouraged their members to nominate migrants. Church representatives met migrant ships on arrival and often travelled with them in Australian waters to different ports. The Churches, too, were

¹ There was less cause for this feeling in Queensland, where the New Settlers League, co-ordinating the work of a number of voluntary organizations, had worked for more than twenty years in close co-operation with the State immigration authorities. In some of the other states, however, the voluntary organizations felt the need to get together and to share their thinking and feeling on the matter of immigration. In New South Wales the Council of Social Service called together its member agencies and other interested bodies, and out of this the Australian Migration Voluntary Service (later renamed the Migration Voluntary Service N.S.W.) was formed.

provided with lists of migrants of their denomination by the State departments. These were forwarded to the clergymen in the districts where migrants were expected. As the arrival of newcomers increased and spread into the country, the State departments found clergymen very helpful in investigating any difficulties that arose.

The States, being responsible for the reception and aftercare of British migrants, began to seek the co-operation of voluntary organizations, first to help at the reception centres with the provision of refreshments. In some States, however, there was a growing appreciation of the rôle that the voluntary organizations might play in state-wide plans for the social well-being and assimilation, and the New Settlers League in Queensland provided a useful model for the thinking directed towards that end.

During 1948 and 1949 most voluntary agencies had had some first hand experience of migrants, both British and foreign. In clubs and hospitality centres, casework agencies, church circles, in the work situation and camp setting, the needs and problems of the newcomer, his hopes and fears, were better known and better focussed. The establishment, early in 1949, of the Assimilation and Social Welfare Section of the Commonwealth Department of Immigration with a trained social worker in charge brought about an important development in the working relationships of the Commonwealth and voluntary organizations. In this Section, which deals with foreign migrants, twenty-seven social workers have been appointed to the offices of the Commonwealth Department in all the capital cities and in reception and holding centres. Their policy is to make the widest possible use of community resources and to deal only with those problems which present language or other special difficulties.¹

The Australian Citizenship Convention was a unique event and may, it is hoped, mark the beginnings of a new era in Government and voluntary agency enterprise. In order to appreciate the Convention's importance, it needs to be realized that there is in Australia no system or tradition of relationships between statutory and voluntary agencies, and experience in this area has been limited and haphazard and marked by

caution and mistrust. Planned by the Chifley Government, under the direction of the Minister for Immigration, preparation for the Convention took many months. It was greatly assisted by the appointment of an organizer from the voluntary field (Mr. John T. Massey, General Secretary, Y.M.C.A. of Australia, who was loaned by his organization for this purpose).

Two hundred delegates, representing one hundred organizations mainly national in character, attended the five-day Convention. They included delegates from the Good Neighbour Councils and New Settlers Leagues, the Churches, Australian Red Cross Society, Boy Scout and Girl Guide Associations, Y.M.C.A. and Y.W.C.A., the Australian Association of Social Workers, Country Womens Association, returned soldiers organizations and Councils of Social Service. Trade Unions, employers' organizations, press, radio and film interests were represented. The Australian State governments were represented together with the Commonwealth and State departments concerned with immigration, e.g. Commonwealth Office of Education, Commonwealth Department of Social Services, Commonwealth Employment Service and State immigration and education departments. At every stage of the proceedings Convention was assisted by officers of the Department of Immigration.

The opening of the Convention was an impressive reminder that the job before delegates was above party politics. It was performed by the Prime Minister, Mr. R. G. Menzies, accompanied by the Leader of the Opposition, Mr. J. Chifley, whose Government had been defeated only a few weeks earlier at the polls, and the former Minister for Immigration, Mr. A. Calwell. In acknowledging the work of their predecessors the Prime Minister and Minister for Immigration, Mr. H. Holt, stated that the new Government would forward with vigour the immigration policy already established.

The Convention programme covered a survey of the migration achievements, a critical study of migrants' needs, consideration of ways of assisting the assimilation of newcomers, and the kind of machinery that would most effectively co-ordinate the work of voluntary organizations aiding this process. More than 50 resolutions concerning education, citizenship, social welfare, employment and publicity emerged from the Convention's deliberations.

¹ Stimulus from this Section of the Commonwealth Department also led to the establishment of organizations to co-ordinate the work of voluntary agencies in States where they did not exist, and furthered interest in the development of a good neighbour policy which would enable all individuals and associations to participate in welcoming and helping the newcomer to adjust to the conditions of living in the country of his adoption.

Under **Education**, pre-school facilities for holding centres were recommended; the migrant child's right to the same educational opportunities as Australian children was upheld with suggestions for the removal of any obstacles to this; the expansion of adult education facilities was urged together with the use of community groups such as the Y.M.C.A., Y.W.C.A. and National Fitness for informal education. The need to encourage foreign migrants to learn English was recognized, and the need to help them to make use of facilities for this purpose. The use of qualified migrant teachers by State education departments was recommended.

Under **Social Welfare**, the humanitarian approach to immigration was stressed. Convention urged the desirability of protecting the family unit and recommended that where a husband has been able to find suitable accommodation for himself and his wife to live together the wife should be released from her Government contract. Approval of the Government's proposed scheme for hostels where immigrant families could live together more easily than under camp conditions was recorded. Resolutions were passed urging the people of Australia as individuals and in associations to remove all obstacles, physical, social, national and racial, that prevent assimilation, and many suggestions were recorded of ways and means of opening up the home and group life of the community to the newcomer for the sharing of mutual interests, the development of friendships and the preservation of the arts and crafts and the cultural interests and skills of New Australians. The Convention re-stated the need for a co-ordinated effort to promote the welfare of newcomers and channel good will and practical assistance of voluntary agencies. The Good Neighbour Councils and New Settlers Leagues were commended for this purpose. Wider membership of these bodies and expansion

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of their activities in suburbs and country districts were urged. New Australians, it was stressed, should be encouraged to participate in the administration and activities of these co-ordinating bodies and their member agencies.

Under **Employment** it was suggested that consideration be given to utilizing the special skills of migrants by the establishment in Australia of industries to produce commodities not previously manufactured in the country such as pure silk goods, fine glassware and handicrafts. Encouragement should be given to migrants, too, to pursue their skills and express their talents in music, art and dancing to enrich the cultural life of the community. The appropriate authorities were urged to give attention to special problems associated with the absorption of migrants into industry and commerce and to the greater use of employers and employees organizations to this end. The evidence of a number of cases where the allocation of jobs to migrants had been unsuccessful led to the recommendation that provision be made for the migrant or voluntary organization acting on his behalf to make

representations to the Commonwealth Employment Service for a change of employment. In the event of disallowance in the first instance the matter to be referred to the Regional Employment Officer and Commonwealth Migration Officer in the State concerned, for recommendation to the Minister as the final authority. Convention urged too that representations be made to State governments, registration boards and other competent authorities that New Australians holding professional qualifications should be admitted to registration after passing appropriate examinations and following a reasonable period of training or readjustment to assure their competence according to Australian standards. The States were urged to make this period in each case the minimum possible to secure the result.

Under **Publicity**, detailed attention was given to enlisting the support of all media, press, radio, film, membership organizations, etc., for the purpose of disseminating information about the immigration scheme, building good will towards New Australians and bringing about a better understanding between old and New Australians in different spheres of activity such as employment. The Department of Immigration was asked to make freer use of pamphlets, bulletins and other material for information purposes and the cultivation of understanding and good will. The Government, it was considered, should take steps to remedy faults indicated by justifiable criticism. Official publicity material for New Australians was recommended, giving information about trade unions and other areas of life in Australia. Furthermore, it was suggested that there should be a continuous and systematic study of problems and favourable factors experienced by migrants, adult and children, and a similar study of relationships of Australians and immigrants with each other.

The foregoing elaboration is sufficient to indicate the nature and extent of the discussions at the Convention. Resolutions were forwarded to the Commonwealth Department of Immigration and a number of them requiring Departmental action have been implemented. One of the most important recommendations that a Commonwealth Co-ordinator be appointed to work with the State co-ordinating bodies and provide a liaison with the Commonwealth De-

partment of Immigration, received prompt consideration, and the appointment of Mr. John T. Massey for this work was well received in all quarters.

The Commonwealth and State Immigration Departments are represented on each of the Good Neighbour Councils and New Settlers League and these co-ordinating bodies are widening their membership and stimulating good neighbour activities in suburbs and country towns and districts. In order that the co-ordinating bodies may function more efficiently and cope with their increasing responsibilities the Commonwealth Government is providing each one with a full-time salaried secretary and the necessary clerical assistance and office space and equipment. The appointment of the secretaries is to be made by the Commonwealth on the recommendation of the bodies concerned.

Periodic conferences of the State co-ordinating bodies are to be arranged (two have already been held, in Melbourne and Brisbane), and the publication of the monthly Bulletin, *The Good Neighbour*, by the Commonwealth Department of Immigration to assist the working of Good Neighbour Committees provides another channel for the sharing of information and experience and recording of progress.

The work of the voluntary agencies in assisting New Australians begins, it has been said, where the Government leaves off. The relationships and the machinery that have been developed for this purpose are good. It remains to be seen how effectively they are used.

NOTE

Readers in many parts of the world will be grateful to the Australian Federal Council of the New Education Fellowship for having assembled this issue of *The New Era*. Neither autocracy nor *laissez-faire* seems to be the guiding principle in this immense Australian experiment; and the honesty of the authors' self-criticism is very refreshing at a time when most of us are busy blaming the other fellow.

Book Reviews have had to be held over for lack of space. We are particularly sorry to have had to omit Dr. Hirsch's review of **Diagnostic and Attainment Testing** by Professor Schonell and F. Eleanor Schonell (*Oliver and Boyd*, 18/6).—ED.

POSTSCRIPT : The material for this issue of *The New Era* has been compiled by the Australian Federal Council of the New Education Fellowship. In collecting the articles, the Council had in mind the far-reaching importance and interest of the present Australian experiment in large-scale government-sponsored migration. We are intensely interested in this new social and educational venture, which, if rightly directed, could help to achieve one of the aims of the New Education Fellowship throughout the world, that is to strengthen the foundations of world peace.

We hope that the total picture presented here will stimulate further practical interest in the problems of migration, not only among the Australian people, but in any part of the world where migrant assimilation and education are taking place.

Clarice McNamara, Hon. Secretary, Australian Federal Council of N.E.F.

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THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

EMOTIONAL EDUCATION AND THE SCHOOL OF THE FUTURE

H. A. T. Child, Chief Educational Psychologist to the London County Council

DISCUSSION of the future begins to seem unfruitful as that future grows in uncertainty. So great are the forces and tensions at work, that we seem to have lost what power we had to direct the course of events. But by contrast, in the days of crisis there comes sometimes a clearer sense of what should have been done, and from this it is possible to obtain a vision of what could yet be done were the danger to pass—and from that to feel an urgent sense of what we must *now* do. In this mood we can certainly consider the school of the future.

As with the larger issues of world affairs, so with the immediate issues of our own country and our own moment, there is a need to consider what we have achieved and, in seeing what is good in it, to take a firm stand on those things we find we cannot afford to lose. In discussing the education of the emotions, therefore, let us spend a few moments looking back, because by doing so I think we can make the school of the future seem less visionary, and gain the courage to go on looking forward.

In passing let me say that whenever I make reference to intellectual education I am sure that there is no need to remind readers that intellectual and emotional education are not in reality separable activities of the human organism. We recognize in these days the vital importance of interest (both in the subject learnt and in the teaching of it) as a factor in learning, and we are well enough aware of how disastrously the frustration caused by inability to master the three R's affects emotional development. But intellectual progress won its place centuries ago as a standard by which educational results are judged: it is in fact still the essential standard in many peoples' minds: a 'good school' is too often a school which turns out scholars first and foremost; the fact that those scholars may not

be well integrated personalities is often regarded as confirmatory evidence of their eminence, rather than as a sign that their education has not been entirely successful.

I am not attempting to suggest that the intellect should be pulled down from its high pedestal of esteem. Indeed, its position is too firmly established to be at all easily shaken. But I think the time has come to revise our educational aims, so as to raise right emotional development to something like the same level.

In considering our emotional state as a nation we have to face certain brute facts. There is, for instance, the fact that 48 per cent.—very nearly half—the hospital beds in the country are reserved for those who are mentally ill or mentally lacking. And there is the fact that one third of industrial absenteeism is attributable to mental illness—10 per cent. of it serious. Beyond these figures there are to be considered the thousands of unhappy, miserable, and inefficient people, both young and old, who never come to official notice but who are to a greater or less extent emotionally immature or emotionally warped, and who eke out their lives, a burden to their friends and to the community they live in. Whether their number is increasing or not it is hardly possible to say, but I think there can be little doubt that emotional backwardness, if it can so be called, presents a far more serious problem than does scholastic backwardness.

Yet scholastic backwardness gives rise to much more anxiety and to much more public discussion than does emotional backwardness. Notice, again the emphasis: we call scholastic backwardness 'educational' backwardness, as though scholastic progress was the be all and end all of education. And this in spite of the fact that emotional disabilities, as Sir Cyril Burt said many years ago, are as amenable to

treatment as intellectual disabilities are resistant. If this is true, and I think it is true, then it is also possible to consider that emotional ability should receive just as much careful nurture and attention as does intellectual prowess, for the second can never be fully effective unless the first reaches its full potentialities.

The problem then, as I see it, is how we can set about the provision of an educational environment for the emotions, both for the emotionally able and for the emotionally handicapped, with the same vigour and care that we have hitherto devoted to the provision of the appropriate intellectual education.

MOST of the great educational theorists and reformers, from Plato onwards, have attached a high importance to the education of the emotions, though instead of using that particular phrase (which seems to be a fairly modern one) they have generally employed terms such as character training or, emphasizing the social aspect, education for citizenship. To some of the earlier writers—Plato is a good example—the idea of an inward emotional life in a child which required guiding and fostering would be very much more strange than would the idea of a pattern of feeling and behaviour imposed upon the supposedly pliant personality, by precept and, if necessary, by disciplinary action. On the other hand, there have also been many authorities like Pestalozzi and Froebel, who have felt clearly that the first essential in the process of growth has been a relationship of love and affection between teacher and taught.

It is difficult to pass judgment on the schools of the past in respect of their capacity to establish a relationship of affection between their pupils and their teachers. For one thing, what survives in literature and in the memory of old scholars seems to be largely the rows they got into, or the floggings they received (which of course made them into the fine men they became), rather than the moments of intimate friendship and mutual response which in all probability did much more to shape their character and help the development of their emotional life. But certainly the impression one gets is that the schools of history clung closely to the theory that children were to be moulded, like wax, to conform to whatever ideals of behaviour the *mores* of the time accepted, and that almost any means were justifiable for

use in the moulding process. The opposite idea, that of children's personalities as something they possess in their own right and which has to be cultivated and helped to develop out of the spontaneous life of the child himself, is a relatively new one from the point of view of common acceptance. In the past it has been held or practised only by the few great pioneers who were as a rule a long way ahead of their time.

When education first became universal and compulsory, the material conditions were such as to make the 'moulding' theories of education the only possible ones for most teachers to adopt. No doubt there were not a few unsung heroes and heroines of real genius and capacity whose relationship to their numerous pupils was unauthoritarian and affectionately individual, but they cannot have been in the majority, for the sheer difficulty of keeping things going must have been enormous. I was shown this term some interesting extracts from an old log book of 1874 onwards, in which were chronicled the day-to-day events of importance of a school in the King's Cross area of London, which started in that year. Reading between the lines we can make out a story of serious endeavour and high idealism. But the entries give evidence of a preoccupation with material troubles, particularly dirt and disease, which make our own present day difficulties seem trifling. Epidemics of every kind seemed to be the rule rather than the exception; diphtheria, typhoid, measles form the constant subjects of entries, and to have one hundred to one hundred and fifty children absent through them was quite a normal occurrence. The smell of the drains (and of the children), the dirt (the Inspectors once noted that many of the ceilings were indistinguishable from the blackboards except by their position), the heat and the cold; life must have been a constant battle for the children against the elements of nature. And it is quite understandable that the children's behaviour (except when it attracted the attention of the police) had to be treated as mass behaviour. Individual idiosyncrasies had to be firmly suppressed if a teacher was to keep on top of the job. Certainly there is no mention of individual children, except as good attenders, in the whole long series of entries extending over many years.

I think it is one of the most significant signs of the change in education now going on, that although material conditions are still very much

against consideration of the individual behaviour problems of children, such consideration is now rapidly becoming a commonplace among teachers. It is true that we now have forty instead of sixty or more children in class, but forty children is certainly not a sufficiently restricted number for any single teacher to know intimately and to be friendly with individually; and the buildings, at any rate in the big industrial areas, are not infrequently much as they were in the last century. Nevertheless, in the course of my official duties, I am constantly surprised by the number of teachers working under these difficult conditions whose attitude towards children whose emotional development presents a problem, great or small, is not one of frustration or of asking how the deviant can be made to conform, but of looking for the causes which lie behind the deviation and of asking themselves what can best be done to help that individual. There are still, of course, our die-hards who trot out the big stick or apply the rigid rule whenever a child kicks over the traces; nor are they necessarily bad teachers because of it; but the others are slowly but steadily on the increase and this, I believe, is a sign of the great educational revolution of our time.

I need not enlarge on the influences which are bringing this revolution about. Back of everything else there lie the imposing theoretical constructions of the schools of psychotherapy. Elaborate, inconclusive and even contradictory though they may be, they have won for themselves a position, in that the life of the unconscious mind as an all-important determinant of our emotional development is becoming almost a commonplace idea. Further, with all their imperfections, they have shown us at least the possibility of a pattern of cause and effect which operates in the development of human personality. While there are still enormous gaps in our attempts to diagnose individual behaviour problems or to build up a clear picture of the development of the normal personality, such diagnosis, or such a picture can at least be seen to be a possibility.

More immediate influences on the educational outlook have, I think, been two in number. The first is the pioneer work done by the Child Guidance Services. I know that many teachers are sceptical of the work done by child guidance clinics and they have some reason to be so, for

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the clinical set up is by no means necessarily the perfect and final arrangement for dealing with emotional behaviour problems. Misunderstanding does at times arise through the fact that the clinic and the teacher do not as a rule approach the problem of individual children from just the same point of view. Further, intercommunication between the two organizations, clinical and educational, tends to be haphazard and is difficult to maintain through lack of time. But in spite of this there is the overall fact that when a child becomes a behaviour problem such that a school feels it can do no more, there is the machinery for referral to an organization which is curative in intent. Thus, more and more emphasis is placed on emotional development as a subject for objective study and as an aspect of human growth which can be influenced, just as intellectual growth is influenced, by the altering of the external environment.

The second immediate influence reinforces these attitudes. This is the official recognition now given to the category of the handicapped child known as 'maladjusted'. Just what is a maladjusted child, and what is not, is I think still largely anybody's guess, but here again we have the recognition of the idea that emotional growth is controllable, and that warped emotional growth is remediable. Further, the 1944 Act has given rise to numerous activities, such as hostels and residential schools and day classes for maladjusted children, all of which support these ideas and which are beginning to provide factual information on the efficacy of environmental treatment of disturbances in children's emotional life.

Activities of this kind have thrown into relief certain facts about maladjusted children which have an important bearing on the life of schools as a whole. There is, for instance, the fact that a child, whose behaviour has been so aggressive and anti-social that he has become the complete despair of parents and teachers, often settles down in a special hostel or school and quite quickly becomes a fairly normal citizen. Again, in the day classes for maladjusted children that we have in London, the number of children, whose record for difficult behaviour when they first enter would be hard to beat, but who after six months or so settle down sufficiently to become normal school citizens again, is surprisingly high. Further, it is on occasions remarkable

what a change of school, or even a change of class will do in altering a difficult or unresponsive child into a co-operative and reasonably happy one.

It is probably true that in these cases we are dealing with those maladjusted children whose emotional disturbance is not very deep-seated so that their natural recuperative powers are sufficiently freed to enable them to master their own problems, given a position in which the numbers to be dealt with is not large, and time is sufficient, and in which there is a specially understanding teacher or two, so that a whole, all-round attack on each child's problems can be made. There will probably always be a hard core of deep-seated and highly intractable cases of emotional disturbance, whose only hope of recovery lies in lengthy and expensive clinical treatment. But the number of such cases may be more limited than appears at first sight; there are certainly plenty of disturbed children who can be helped a long way towards recovery through the skill and patient work of teachers who have a special interest in the task, even though they have no special psychological training.

GRANTED that this is true for children whose emotional state is so abnormal that they come under official notice, what would we see if the same methods and the same attitudes could be applied to all the children in ordinary schools? For it is obvious that for every seriously disturbed child who receives special treatment there are half-a-dozen others in ordinary schools for whom very little can be done, either because their symptoms are not severe enough to receive official notice, or because they have not enough nuisance value to make their presence in ordinary classes intolerable. The mildly aggressive lad who is continually losing his temper but who never does quite enough damage to others to make himself unbearable; the girl who tends to burst into tears whenever her work goes wrong or whenever she is faced with a mild difficulty; the child who cannot make friends easily with other children; the child who sits and dreams away half his school life—there are thousands upon thousands of such children in our schools, all needing attention, and most not getting much of it. And unless they can be given help during their school life no one is going to give them much later. It is from these that eventually emerge all those emotionally

incompetent or anti-social citizens that I mentioned earlier who are a burden to themselves and to the community and who form such ideal material for the unscrupulous and equally unstable propagandist.

Now I am, of course, well aware that many a teacher spends an enormous amount of time and trouble in trying to help such cases as these, and I am also well aware of the argument that you cannot expect a wholesale attack on the problem of behaviour and emotional development until the pupil-teacher ratio is reduced to more manageable proportions from this point of view. That is true enough, but I doubt if these points can be brought forward as an adequate reason for doing little about it at the moment. And the same arguments apply with equal force to intellectual development: scholastic progress cannot be really efficient with classes of the size they now are; but this does not prevent us from doing all we can by organizing our schools and classes so as to give every pupil the best chance of making progress; the same should apply to emotional development. There is a much more fundamental difficulty than the size of class and that is that our schools are organized mainly on a scholastic basis and seldom on a basis of the all round development of children.

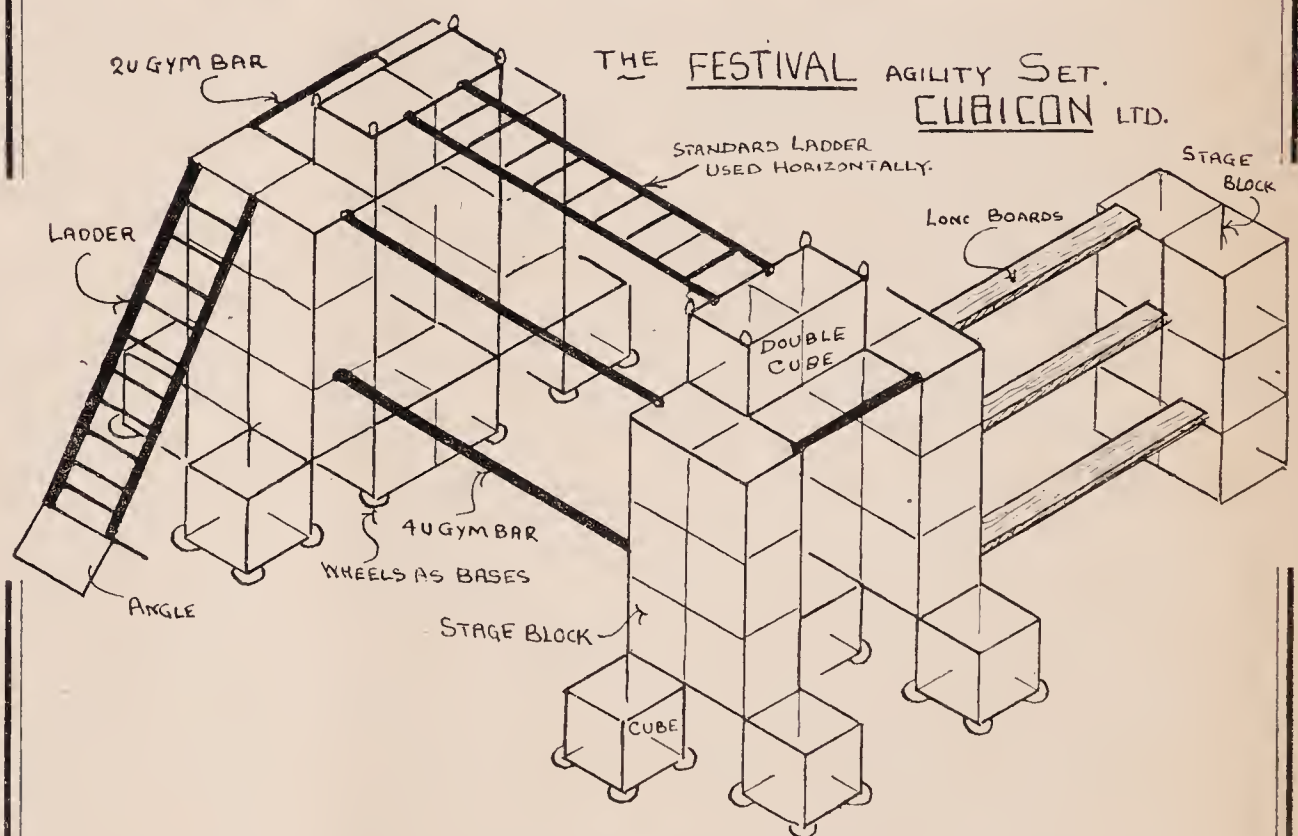
In the course of this term I visited two boys' secondary schools, in similar neighbourhoods and each with a roll of about two hundred and fifty. In one there were thirty boys on probation, in the other, none. And yet the organization in the two schools was almost identical, for it was on a scholastic basis. Surely it is possible to argue that the first school needs to centre much of its activity round the fact that it has such a large number of boys whose attitude to society needs remedial treatment? The first need for many of

them, it seems to me, would be a tough, physical group task of a creative and socially useful kind, such as clearing and planting a bomb-site, from which their classroom work might grow in due course, though there should not be too much of that at first. But you can see at once how our present attitudes influence us, for if it is suggested that children, especially older ones, should not spend most of their school hours in actually acquiring knowledge, we begin to feel uncomfortable. We forget that many of them, as things are, are in any case learning remarkably little; their emotional condition is such that they are not really able to do so.

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Two requirements must be met if we are to make marked progress in the education of the emotions at school. The first is that the assessment of emotional needs by teachers—the diagnosis of growing personality—must be carried out in a much more objective and scientific way than it has been hitherto. It is sometimes said by the critics that the scientific assessment of personal qualities is such a difficult and intricate business that it can only be safely left in the hands of psychological or psychiatric experts, and for this reason we are even asking too much when we expect teachers to be able to make fairly simple assessments of such qualities for cumulative record cards. I do not think that such a view can be justified. A teacher of experience, at any rate, has a more favourable opportunity of studying children than almost anyone else and if he cannot utilize his experience in order to diagnose and assess emotional needs, I doubt if anyone else can. Further, even if they do not at present do it well, teachers *do* it, all day and every day. In the normal course of work they continually pass judgment on children's behaviour and suggest causes for it, because they have to do so most of the time. The fact that their judgments may at times be erroneous or prejudiced merely means that those who are in a position to offer it should help with training and advice.

The second requirement is for scientific information on the influence of the group life of a

school, or of a class, on the developing personalities of children. Here we badly need the assistance of social psychologists and sociologists who are opening up exciting possibilities, but whose work so far has been mainly directed to the problems of group life among people of post-school age in industry and elsewhere. Authorities on child development have shown us something of the great importance of group life in young children's development, but above the youngest school ages there is a host of questions for which we should like an answer, particularly those referring to everyday problems of school life. Why, for example, if you ask teachers in a school to list the children they teach in order of co-operativeness, do you find one child heading the list of one teacher, but at the bottom of another's? What kind of personality in a teacher is most suited to a group of aggressive children? What kind does best with timid, retiring children? Would it pay to group the most aggressive children together, so that they knock spots off each other, so to speak, under wise but firm guidance, or would it be more profitable for a group of normally co-operative children to 'carry' a certain number of aggressives who could learn to control themselves under the influence of the calmer and more co-operative others of the group?

I HOPE no one will conclude that I am not appreciative of the many schools, both within the State system and outside it, which have attempted in one way or another to solve some of these problems. In particular the 'Pioneer' schools of the early part of this century, which as a rule have had such close ties with the New Education Fellowship, have been distinguished for their courageous advocacy of the importance of emotional education. In fact, parents have often sent their children to such schools because they wanted to be sure that their emotional development would not be ignored—and because they feared it might be ignored in the more orthodox kind of independent school. I am sure that these pioneer schools have played a vitally important part in placing the education of the emotions upon the educational map; but at the same time I think that the next step is to place them more accurately on the map. The three great achievements of the pioneer schools have been, first, to show that an unauthoritarian regime, not based on fear, was not only possible, but also fruitful;

second, to demonstrate the immense value of the creative arts in educating the whole of a child and, third, to show what should be done by close attention to individual needs. But it may be argued that, in this third achievement, the emotional life of children has been catered for in some of these schools more by a policy of general removal of restrictions rather than by a consciously planned 'curriculum' of the social environment to suit the particular emotional needs of each child. For it seems to me that full emotional development, like other kinds of development, needs just the right stimulus in the shape of obstacles which it is possible, but not entirely easy, to overcome. To attempt to remove all emotional obstacles may not help at all, in fact it is not really possible.

In this field we tend to work at present—if we work at all—in a blind and groping fashion, and we badly need the help of trained workers with a scientific background. Here is a vast field for research, and it is one in which new techniques of observation are opening up immense possibilities. But so long as scholastic progress continues to outweigh any other aspects of development, we are confined in what we do. We cannot easily construct an emotional curriculum which will do its job well, until emotional needs are ranked as highly as scholastic ones.

It is noticeable that whenever a new method, or even a new subject, has been introduced into education, it is liable to attack on the grounds that scholastic standards will be inevitably lowered, and fierce argument is raised, usually without any objective support, by the opponents of the new. Schools which have already attempted seriously to adjust their regimes to the emotional needs of their children—and their number is growing—will have to face a barrage of criticism of this kind, not only from authority but also from parents. This increases the difficulty of their task, but there are some facts which come to their support. One is the historical one that, in spite of all the material difficulties engendered by two world wars, there has been an enormous lightening of the disciplinary harshness and rigidity in schools of all kinds. Teachers, in other words, are discovering for themselves that the beginning of *all* progress, in the three R's as in other things, lies in the right relationship between teacher and child. Another fact is this: there is at the moment an intensified interest in the

problem of reading backwardness and semi-literacy. It is certainly a serious problem, but almost every adequate survey shows clearly enough that at least half the cases of backward readers are not intellectually incompetent. Their troubles are mainly due to faulty emotional attitudes to reading and learning, which must be got right before any real progress in reading can be made.

We need have no fear that a widening of the activities of schools to include an adequate provision for the education of the feelings would have any serious effects on scholastic progress. The chances are that there would then be such an awakening of interest and a flowering of potentialities that the general scholastic level would be substantially raised. Further, we might then find a larger proportion of school leavers who were genuinely interested in the knowledge they gained at school and who were prepared to go on adding to it: their number is very small at present.

But above all, we should then be sending out into the world far fewer young citizens who are, so to speak, only capable of operating at a low level because their emotional development has never reached a stage high enough to enable them to cope with modern life. They are pathetic creatures, these half-educated citizens of ours, and they are also dangerous creatures, for they cannot face reality. The only possibility of a true democracy lies in the individual responsibility and wisdom of its individual citizens, and wisdom depends on two acquisitions, knowledge and emotional balance. As William Temple said in one of his letters: 'What we need desperately in our country is to cultivate independence of mind and fellowship of spirit, and what we *are* developing . . . is herd mentality with the spirit of pugnacity. You have got to try to invert that and teach people to feel together and to think for themselves . . . instead of thinking together and feeling for themselves.'

NOTE :

This paper was read by Mr. Child at a meeting of the English New Educational Fellowship at the Conference of Educational Associations, King's College, London. Mr. Child is expressing his own views, which are not necessarily those of the London County Council.—ED.

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A NEW TRAINING COLLEGE FOR NURSERY SCHOOL TEACHERS

E. M. Mason, Formerly Principal Barkly House Training College for Nursery Education, Cape Town

IN September 1950 the foundation stones of a new Training College for Nursery School teachers, the first building of its kind in South Africa, were laid in Claremont, a suburb of Cape Town. One of the stones was laid by the Senior Student of the College, representing the generations of her fellows who had known both the discomfort and the fun of being in at the beginning. For the life of the College had started some twelve years earlier with the work of three staff members and eight students in a Nursery School, built for the training of students as well as for the education of children.

One small room in the Nursery School was all the space available as lecture room and common room for students. The training course was for three years; by the second year, considerable ingenuity and forbearance were needed by the staff and students in fitting in classes, and when the numbers in training grew to forty and the number of lecturers had increased in proportion, the discomforts of living and working in crowded conditions sometimes threatened to outweigh the fun of being in at the beginning of a new development in education. Nursery School playrooms, staff and Principal's room were all pressed into service as lecture rooms after the children had gone home at 2.30; classes in Cookery, Art and Handwork were held under incredibly difficult conditions and with next to no equipment, as war made materials increasingly scarce. The only people who did not suffer from lack of space and makeshifts in our community were the children, as the Nursery School was a well-planned, delightful building, excellently furnished and equipped and serving as a model for the Cape Province, if not for the whole of the Union of South Africa. With all the difficulties of those early days there was one outstanding advantage: the College grew up around the Nursery School; we lived with the children, and theory and practice were closely knit.

As our numbers increased, fresh problems arose: The Nursery School must not be swamped or cramped by the growing College; at the same time, the centering of the life of the training course in the development of the children in the

School seemed something which must be preserved. One practical difficulty was the lack of other Nursery Schools in which students could gain parallel experience to that which we could give them in our own. Nursery School education was a new idea, and it was, indeed, one of the responsibilities of the College to arouse awareness of the importance of the early years of childhood and to stimulate the growth of Nursery Schools in the country. Fortunately for us, the opening of Schools kept pace on the whole with the training; at times, it even threatened to outstrip the supply of teachers, in spite of the fact that courses are also available in Johannesburg and Pretoria at the Technical College and University respectively. Another difficulty was that of finding suitable lecturers for a syllabus orientated towards the development and needs of young children. The field of choice was very restricted, especially during the war years when staff was not available from other countries. All teaching relating to Nursery School methods and child psychology was at first undertaken by the Principal of the Nursery School and myself; with the need for more lecturers which came with expansion, we had to face the danger of a split between theory and practice, especially when the College moved away from the Nursery School buildings.

In 1945, the Training Centre was declared a Place of Higher Education, thus qualifying for maintenance grants from the Education Department, and moved to Barkly House, some eight minutes' walking distance from the Nursery School. A square, whitewashed, thatched building, old as houses go in the Cape and standing in about three acres of garden, enclosed with trees giving it seclusion, and with a distant view of Table Mountain, it had a happy atmosphere and seemed ideally suited to our needs. Here the life of the College expanded and developed a character of its own, though soon lack of space again became our great problem. Originally, nine students lived in the house and others boarded out in the neighbourhood. Under pressure of demands for Hostel accommodation from the parents of students coming from a distance, and often leaving home for the first time, we set out

to provide more bedrooms. Office accommodation was whittled down, servants' quarters moved, a piece squeezed out of the Principal's office, another from the Warden's flat, and space was found for seven more students. Their sitting-room and dining room served a dual purpose as lecture rooms; the Library became Art-school or lecture room, as required; the front hall became a music room, used, alas! also as a thoroughfare, and extra classes had to be held in the garden. This was no hardship in the sunshine of the Cape climate, but cold and wet days presented one more problem of providing space for sixty-five students engaged on four different courses with only three available rooms. But, once more, we found that living closely together under difficult conditions had great potentialities for good as well as having drawbacks. Staff and students worked and played and lived together those first years in an atmosphere of natural friendliness.

When the question of a College Hostel was first discussed, students were wary of the idea; many of them had been for years at boarding school and valued tremendously the new freedom they were experiencing during their training, living in boarding houses and hotels. 'Would it be run like a Nursery School?' they asked anxiously. They meant, they explained, would it be run on free lines or would they be hedged in by rules and restrictions? I said I visualized life at Barkly House like life in a large family; certain things must be done at certain times and certain limitations placed on individual freedom in the interests of the group, but rules would be allowed to evolve as we became aware of the need for them. And so our new experiment in living together began.

We all, students and staff, learned a great deal from each other. None of the serious difficulties I had anticipated arose, but innumerable problems I had never envisaged cropped up daily; I must confess, I thought at times of the remark: 'Will it be like a Nursery School?' There was little we did not know about each other, being at such close quarters, yet the dignity and privacy of each individual was, somehow, respected. Co-operation and mutual consideration were essential and there was an extraordinary friendliness and tolerance among this diverse group of girls ranging from seventeen to twenty-one years.

Life was not easy for the students, but neither was it for staff. We learned by experience of the

noise, untidiness and forgetfulness which seemed to be the inevitable immediate result of giving responsibility and freedom to a group of girls between seventeen and eighteen, after the more regimented and spoon-fed existence from which most of them had come. Our crowded community, held together by a common interest in children and working for a common aim in the development of the College, was a hard but valuable testing ground in which both adults and adolescents could learn to appreciate the art of relationships, the power of suggestion and the gradualness of growth.

The fun of being in things from the beginning was, I think, for the students, more than compensation for the discomforts. They helped to choose the College badge, with many noisy discussions and attempts to produce satisfactory designs. The suggestion of a tree as a symbol of growth and of the relation of the life of the individual to that of humanity came from them; the first design for the badge was created by the mother of three of our Nursery School children, for the parents shared in the hopes for the future of the Training College, and the final emblem of a tree, encircled with the words *IN MY END IS MY BEGINNING* was developed by a staff member. Students collected funds for the new buildings and watched the gradual evolution of plans, discussed them eagerly, and proudly explained the architectural model to visitors.

As the training course developed as a separate entity, ways had to be found to keep the close link between theory and practice which had been built up while the Nursery School and Training Centre were one unit. A second practising Nursery School was opened under the direction of the College; seminars for students were held in the Nursery Schools each week, in which questions of method and child psychology were discussed as they arose in practice, and lecturers in Music, P.T., and Medical subjects worked both with children and students. In addition, regular discussions on those children who presented difficulties were held with Third Year students, Nursery School staff and all interested lecturers, in attendance. I acted as Consultant on these occasions and also kept a regular contact with the Schools by interviewing any parents whom the staff considered to be in need of guidance in dealing with problems of behaviour in their children.

Other questions of training, which settled themselves when working in a small group and limited environment, now began to occupy our minds. Many of these are common to all student-training work: the relative time to be given to theoretical subjects and teaching practice; the relative value of arranging theory and practice concurrently or consecutively; the point in training at which demonstration is most fruitful and the stage at which observation of children carries most meaning for students.

Our answers to these questions were dictated, to some extent, by the special circumstances in which we were working in South Africa. Students had to be prepared to take responsible positions, sometimes in institutions, sometimes training girls of fourteen to sixteen years, or native students, in Child Care, in addition to being in charge of Nursery Schools; they had little chance of 'learning their job' as assistants, but frequently had to take positions as Principals directly they left College, so short was the supply of experienced teachers in the country. Their schools were often isolated so that there was little chance of meeting other people with a Nursery School background; they often had to play a big part in the local community, and frequently found themselves working with untrained assistants and Committee members, older than themselves and with more zeal than knowledge on the subject of child education. To meet this situation, it became imperative to give as much teaching practice as was compatible with a curriculum swollen by the inclusion of subjects designed to fit students for responsible and organizing posts and by the need to teach two languages throughout the three years' training in order to conform with the required standards of bi-lingualism. In the first years, with few students and less pressure of subjects, it was possible to give observation and practice in Nursery Schools and Nurseries every morning. Hours of practice had to be reduced later, but we tried to keep an average of three mornings a week throughout the year.

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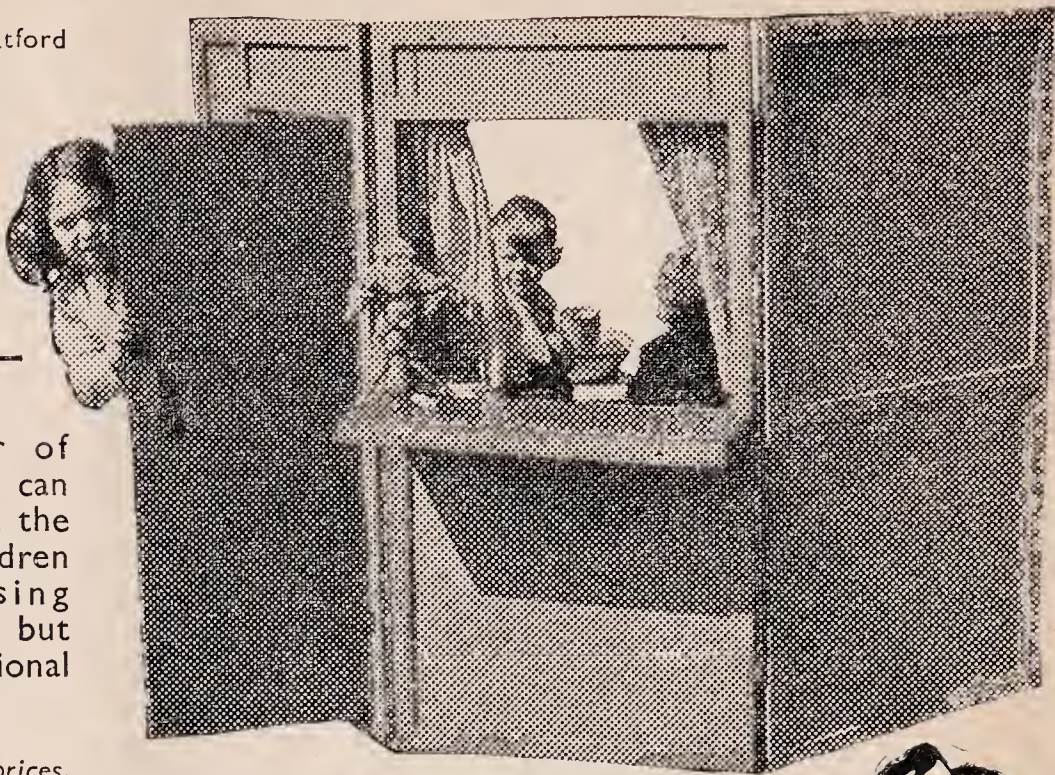
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In spite of many staff discussions, the habit of keeping teaching practice and lecturing running concurrently throughout the year was preserved. We started training on these lines, in the first place, in an effort to counteract certain attitudes which were part of the students' tradition. We were faced with the feeling among students that Nursery School teaching was inferior—'nurse-maid's work'—and that domestic work was *infra dig*. This was not surprising in a country where the majority of children are cared for by untrained Coloured or Native nurse girls and where plentiful domestic labour is available. One newly-arrived student, when told that she could not send an unlimited number of garments to the laundry, and thus faced with the necessity of doing some washing herself, said: 'My mother would take me away if she knew I had to wash and iron my own dress.' In the first years of training we occasionally had students who did not know how to make tea, nor the rudiments of household shopping. Lack of practical experience and the feeling that white people did not do such work, made Nursery School training particularly hard for South African girls. Staff and students working together at chores in the Nursery School in the early years of training soon overcame this attitude, and domestic science became important and real through being linked closely with the

children's development. External classes in cooking and housewifery were abandoned, in favour of teaching the students while they prepared the meals for the children in the Nursery School. With expansion, classes were resumed, but under our own lecturer, who also worked in the mornings in the Nursery School with a small group of girls.

Students were led to an understanding of the importance of their work by letting them help in the Nursery School, and by giving them definite points in procedure to observe from the beginning of their training. Child study, in the form of discussions of their own observations and lectures in general psychology, formed a background to their experiences in the Nursery School and gave meaning to them. Every year, within the first six months of starting the course, we saw young students suddenly awakening to a lively interest in the children and their ways, and from this to an understanding of the purpose of their three years' training. At one time we reduced the hours of teaching practice for first year students and replaced them by a series of visits to outside schools. After watching ten generations of girls in training, I came to the conclusion that the lack of serious purpose, which was noticeable at this time in all branches of the work of these students, could be related to the fact that their interest had not been centred on the development of one group of children from the beginning of their training. When a period of three weeks continuous practice in the Nursery Schools was introduced, their interest and enthusiasm developed.

The question of adjusting the method of training to the emotional needs of students at each stage is, I am convinced, of extreme importance. It is essential to give them a sense of the purpose and reality of their work at the crucial moment when they are starting on the path towards their professional career, by practical experience related to new ideas and ideals; and their need for security must also be considered in relation to methods of lecturing. From early days the students realized that we put their development as people before their training as teachers. Later, an ideal way of life was presented specifically to them in the words of St. Paul, 'is not puffed up, does not behave itself unseemly, suffereth long and is kind'. The modern tendency to discuss rather than to lecture, and constantly to put the onus on the students, while rarely answering their groping questions, I found

tended to increase their insecurity. Seminars, class discussions and tutorials gave scope for this type of stimulus to thought, but the authority and inspiration of good lecturing seemed necessary to give the security out of which independent thinking can grow.

As the years passed, some of the practices we first started in response to expediency, came to be recognized as having great educational value and suggested possibilities for new developments in Nursery School work in general. Thus the work with parents on Child Guidance lines, which arose through lack of available psychiatric help, succeeded in such a manner as to suggest that Nursery Schools, with the help of a skilled psychiatric social worker or therapist, could do much in adjusting early behaviour disturbances. With the College in close contact with the Nursery School, we were in a specially favoured position for work of this kind in that, without any undue emphasis on a problem, an over-anxious mother, or one whose child was causing anxiety to the staff, could be asked to come and see me in the Nursery School. In some cases the mother was seen only once or twice; in other instances, she attended weekly over a period of some months, receiving help in dealing with the situation which had arisen with the child, while her own share in the problem was ventilated and her conflicts reduced. In cases of children showing marked feeding disturbances, work with the mother was nearly always found to be essential: the ordinary Nursery School approach of advising her on methods of feeding and discussing possible methods of persuading the child to eat, only served to exacerbate the problem, which so often lay in the relationship of the mother and her child and had its roots in her own attitude and past experience. From the point of view of student training, this work with parents was invaluable, as providing evidence of the extreme importance of the relationship between mother and child, the subtleties of behaviour and the need to consider the parents' part in upbringing in all Nursery School teaching.

If such a service as this could be established within the existing framework of Nursery School education, many problems of behaviour could be dealt with without recourse to examination at a Child Guidance Clinic. At this early age, when mother and child are so closely related, guidance for the former is an essential part of helping in dis-

turbances of development and, indeed, in many instances, the mother, even more than the child, may need help. A well run Nursery School is an excellent field for the observation of children's development; well trained Nursery School teachers are sensitive to the difficulties of the children in their care and soon become aware when they are not responding to free play and the routine advice and help given to the mother. The Nursery School makes an important contribution to the development of children, but this could be even greater if it took responsibility for providing skilled psychological guidance of parents in all cases where the staff considered it desirable, by the appointment of trained psychiatric social workers.

In these ways, starting with a small training centre, we explored various possibilities of education of children and students, and now the College enters a new phase of life, as it moves into its new buildings, planned for a hundred students and with a Nursery School specially equipped for observation. When the foundation stones were laid, one young student asked: 'Will the friendly, happy atmosphere go on when we are big?' There is no doubt that the smallness of our group and the difficulties and closeness of day to day living made for co-operation and for the 'catching' of values and attitudes which cannot easily be taught in words. The College and Hostel have, however, been planned with an appreciation of the needs both for individual growth and for happy living together. 'Mass living' in the Hostel has been avoided by the provision of separate flats for each group of four students. The College buildings are centred in the Hall and Courtyard, shadowed by a giant rubber tree; other small courtyards and gardens link the buildings, which also have spacious landings and halls. Here, we hope, in the casual

talk and gatherings of staff and students, the essential give-and-take of the life of the College will continue, and that most valuable form of teaching and learning which seems almost incidental and which goes on outside the lecture room, will develop under more peaceful conditions than we, who were in at the beginning, ever knew.

There has certainly been fun as well as anxieties and difficulties for all of us in these years of beginnings. For the staff, it has been in seeing the students come alive in a new way, and grow each in their unique and individual manner. But I, as Principal, knew added pleasures, such as seeing in an untried, inexperienced lecturer an integrity to which the students responded in their own development, in another an unsuspected genius for sensitive relationship, and in yet another an ability to set the whole College on fire with enthusiasm for a subject which had formerly been dead matter. I do not think the weight of numbers will destroy these qualities, not large buildings kill such happiness as we have known together.



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PLAY IN A COMMUNITY FOR MOTHERS AND THEIR YOUNG CHILDREN¹

Elinor Goldschmied, Play Adviser on Nurseries, Opera Nazionale di Maternità ed' Infanzia for the Province and Commune of Milan

DEPRIVED of normal home life' is a phrase that describes a sad reality for countless children and grown-ups to-day, and many of them, certainly all of the children, are so deprived 'through no fault of their own'. If, as well as lacking the normal warm relationships with both parents, a child is also denied the opportunity for adequate individual and social play, his chances of normal development are remote. Those of us who are caring for children in any group or institution, either with or without their parents, must provide something which will satisfy, at least in part, their social and emotional needs. We can no longer ignore the importance of play to their development, in whatever circumstances they may grow up. Research and observation have brought us knowledge which makes it impossible for us to plead ignorance. Nor does the development of children differ so from country to country that we can take shelter behind the excuse that experience in one is invalid in another.

This article will outline our efforts to introduce play activities for a group of young children living together with their mothers at the '*Villaggio della Madre e del Fanciullo*' in Milan, Italy. I will try to indicate some of the constructive possibilities we have achieved, and some of the problems we are meeting in the modest work that we have carried on for four months, and which we aim to develop further as funds allow.

The *Villaggio* is housed in a number of adequate prefabricated huts grouped in a garden near the centre of Milan. So that the character of the *Villaggio* may be as human and as non-institutional as possible, a maximum of twenty-three mothers and twenty-three children are provided for. Since a proportion of the mothers come to the *Villaggio* to await the birth of their infants, there are rarely as many as twenty-three children in the group. At the moment there are six infants of less than six months, and the remainder form a group ranging up to five years. The general policy is to accept children below

the age of three years, but no hard and fast rule is adhered to. Unmarried mothers form about one-third of the whole.

The object of the *Villaggio* is to provide a temporary haven for mothers with young children when the family unit is faced with some problem or series of problems which would otherwise mean that mother and child must be separated, and all hope of keeping the family together and eventually rebuilding it would disappear. Prolonged illness, imprisonment, abandonment by the father, are some of the reasons why these mothers have come with their children to the *Villaggio*. There is no time limit to the length of their stay, but over the period of the five years that the *Villaggio* has been running, the average length of stay has been five to six months. We want to emphasize that our work is based on a respect for the relationship between mother and child—always with the aim that this breathing-space at the *Villaggio* shall be of value in the making of their life when mother and child go out. During the period of their stay the mothers undertake all the domestic work. There are three staff, one of them a nurse. It will be seen immediately that this particular kind of community life is bound to bring forth special problems, substantially different from those of other communities, among them, the problem of the fatherless or virtually fatherless child.

It was partly to help solve some of them that four months ago a play-group was begun for the group of about twelve children, from the age of ten months upwards. Previous efforts had been made to find someone suited to initiate such play activity but without success. It is clear that if this side of the life of children in the *Villaggio* is to be fully developed, a full-time member of the staff will be needed for this alone. Meantime, with the training and experience as a Nursery School teacher and psychiatric social worker, I am doing it, along with another voluntary worker; but our time is unfortunately limited, so though it is a beginning, it is hoped that other personnel will later be trained.

When discussing the introduction of play activities into the life of the children of the group,

¹ This article is reproduced, with kind permission, from *La Revue Suisse de Psychologie*, Vol. IX, No. 3—a special number under the auspices of *International Study Weeks for Child Victims of the War*.—ED.

we realized that we were bringing into the life of the *Villaggio* and into the experience of the mothers an attitude towards the activities of their children which was in fact very different indeed from the conventional methods of upbringing to which they were accustomed. This was bound to be a disturbing influence, and it was bound to, and still does, meet with a good deal of resistance on the part of some of the mothers. Activities chosen by the children themselves, carried out with a minimum of interference from us, was something which a number of the mothers found very hard to understand. Of her small daughter, aged two, one of them remarked with vehemence: 'I don't want my child to learn to *play*, because she will have to learn to *work*.' This attitude is by no means confined, we have found, to parents who have had little or no opportunity to study the development of their children. 'He is *only* playing' is the point of view which is most prevalent. Here in Italy particularly, it would seem that the emphasis has been more directed towards the education of children on an intellectual level, even before they are old enough to be taught anything! Less

emphasis has been laid on social and emotional development. That is why we feel it is important to do practical work in this field of play.

We have already begun to invite two or three children to join the play group from outside the *Villaggio*, first in order to do something to integrate the community with the life of the neighbourhood, and second so that our mothers and children may have contact with other mothers and children who are living a normal life at home.

We are convinced that it is in the co-operation of the mothers in the play activities of their children, and of the children of the other mothers, that one of the truly constructive purposes of the play group lies. They will eventually pass out from the *Villaggio*, and if they have learnt to take part with enjoyment in the activities of their children, we feel that both child and parent will be somewhat better equipped to face life together. This opinion is not as yet based on any observed *results* of parents and children who have passed out, and even if follow-up work of a very skilled sort were possible, it is doubtful if this is a thing which can ever be assessed.

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have for the most part experienced little or none of the normal home life of a wife with husband and children beside her. The unmarried mothers have had their children as unwanted, and must face a society heavy with condemnation. Those who really have some concrete prospect of rebuilding their home life have a different attitude towards themselves and towards their child or children than have those who have a strong feeling of failure, of being defeated by life and whose sense of guilt towards their child is strong.

It is the mothers of this latter group who are clearly in the greater need of help, and we are faced with mothers whose only emotional outlet is her child. When their babies are still infants, their feeling can be expressed in all the care surrounding the feeding, bathing and clothing of so helpless a creature. But when he passes from a state of complete dependence towards early efforts to independent movement and activity, many of the mothers cannot adjust themselves to his changing needs. Added to the normal anxiety which a mother feels when she sees her infant attempt physical feats of climbing, pushing and exploring, we have amongst our mothers those who find it immensely difficult to allow this minimum of independent activity. In their anxiety they see only the dangers, the bumps, the cries, and not the triumph of the infant who climbs upon the box and stands delighted above his companions, or the deep concentration of the infant who negotiates his own food into his mouth.

In the play activities which we are providing for an infant who is making his first attempts to crawl, we aim to give him conditions for safe movement. But while giving him what he is urgently seeking, we can also perhaps, if only to a limited extent, help his mother to enjoy him in his new activities and to give him encouragement in his hardly won achievements.

Here we would quote our experience with a child of twelve months who had never been allowed by his mother to do other than lie in his cot or sit up at a table in an armchair. He was overweight, passive and often irritable. Only after four weeks of patient encouragement could his mother allow him to be put on the rug in the play room. When this was achieved he moved sufficiently to roll over and find himself sprawled face downwards with hands and feet outstretched. He remained thus, quite passive, making not even a wriggle of protest, but obviously in distress when

he began to whimper. We were able to show his mother how, if he were partially helped by having his knees and elbows drawn up beneath him, he could begin to help himself to alter his situation, though his fatness and under-developed muscles made this a slow process at first. With the simple play materials at hand, we were able to give him a maximum incentive to master the beginnings of crawling. His response was striking, and gradually his face assumed a different expression as his passivity gave way to an enjoyment in mastering new movement. This instance may seem very insignificant, but it is in countless ways such as this that we can not only serve the children themselves, but can bring the mothers to a new outlook upon their children. We can demonstrate that there are other ways of dealing with a child who bites another than by hitting him, that there are other ways of treating the thumbsucker than by threatening to 'call the doctor to come and cut it off'. The mother who said 'I have always been alone, my child will always be alone too' has, in fact, during these months, seen her four-year-old girl first play alongside the others of her age and now with them.

We have too to keep a balance in our guidance of a mother towards interest in her child's powers. Most parents do indeed want their children to achieve, to excel, but they want them to do this without the fatigue or disturbance which the faltering intermediate stages cost them. Every parent wants his child to walk alone, to feed himself in a competent manner, but few parents can really tolerate the disordered appearance, the dirty hands and knees, the crumbs on the floor and the spilt milk which must occur if the child is to learn these habits of independence. Here at the *Villaggio* we have an opportunity to give guidance if we are skilled enough to have this guidance accepted by the mothers. It cannot be said that in our short period of work we have done more than lay a foundation. Our mothers themselves have been brought up in a very different tradition, where, however, warmly and genuinely children may have been loved, this love has not been tempered with any deep understanding of how children themselves develop a satisfactory independence.

By introducing, even to children who are only just able to walk, the simple routines of laying the tables, washing their own hands, caring for and setting in order the play materials, we have

begun to show our mothers the pride and pleasure which young children take in doing these things and in being praised for their skill. We have to challenge the age-old 'It's quicker to do it myself', and one of the hardest things that we have to try to achieve is some acceptance of the fact that if they are to learn to live, our children must have *time* in which to master the many complicated skills that we demand. To achieve this atmosphere of 'time and to spare', particularly in an institution, demands a high level of understanding on the part of the staff, whose authority in maintaining efficiency without rigidity has to be based on a confidence and trust which is mutual. This brings us back again to the ever-present problem of finding and training staff who can undertake this work. But it is clear that, before personnel can be trained, a setting must be created in which in fact they can receive a training and carry out observations.

I must now deal shortly with the question of play equipment, since we feel that our experience at the *Villaggio* may be of some practical help to other institutions where the problem of 'the means' is generally an ever-present one. Confining ourselves to play material for young children under three years, we want to stress that this need not be costly or difficult to procure. But unless equipment is correctly chosen to meet the needs of various ages, strongly made and, above all, *sufficient* for the numbers in the group, even the most highly skilled staff cannot succeed. For each phase—for sucking, rattling, banging, pushing, pulling, rolling, manipulative play, climbing and so on—we have tried to provide wooden spoons, simple cubes, boxes, wooden bricks, bobbins, painted tins. Materials coloured or uncoloured collected from attics, cellars, stores, carpenters' shops, from anywhere and everywhere, in fact, have been cleaned and put in order for us. Tailors' old pattern books, factory samples machined together by the mothers, make dolls' bedding, washable mattresses stuffed with discarded nylon stockings, dolls' cots made from tangerine baskets from the nearby market, all these things and many others which are to hand for the asking, have been the source of supply of our play equipment. It is with intention that we speak of play equipment and not of toys. In our experience the average toy brought from a shop has a short and disappointing life—disappointing both to adult and child.

Useful preparatory work was done while we were collecting and preparing the play material before starting with the children. It is our experience that the mothers should see, and as far as possible be encouraged to take part in, this preparation. It is our aim to increase their participation in this work so that their interest becomes more closely identified with the activity of their children. The equipment can easily be made by an adult without specialized skill and the experience is something which the mothers may take away with them when they leave.

Another advantage of calling on the mothers is that it helps us to solve a problem that must be faced in every institution—the creation of a sense of responsibility for property held in common. We have managed to create in the children this sense that the play material is common to all and must be respected by all. As always, unending vigilance is needed to keep the play material together and in order, and we have found that, where one must rely largely upon unskilled help, the supervision and care of the play equipment must be entrusted to someone who has a real understanding of the work, and that what may seem to be a very pedestrian job is indeed a vital part of the educator's activity.

Looking back on our work at the *Villaggio*, we are fully aware of its very modest proportions so far. But just as every adult has the right to work, we are attempting in our play group to gain for our children the right to play—not crumbs of play snatched from a grudging hand, but a rich provision based on all the knowledge we can assemble about children and their needs.

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A GREAT TEACHER : Maria Boschetti-Alberti

Adolphe Ferrière

ON 22nd January, 1951, Maria Boschetti-Alberti died at Agno au Tessin in Switzerland. Her name will live in the history of twentieth century education; Lombardo-Radice, the great Italian reformer of primary schools, thought very highly of her work, and people came from many parts of the world to watch her teaching at the senior school at Agno and to hear her at conferences in Geneva, Paris and elsewhere.

Her simplicity was her greatest quality. As you listened to her you felt that all the problems of education would be solved if only children were left free to learn and to organize their own group-living. And indeed her own pupils enjoyed a liberty I have never seen elsewhere; yet not only did they pass their examinations with shining success, but they covered the whole year's syllabus in seven months, whilst their contemporaries in ordinary schools laboured away for the full ten.

Her pupils were far from being picked children. Many came from very modest homes, some from very miserable ones. Some of them came to school showing obvious signs of physical and psychic defect, and already burdened with a bad reputation. Their earlier teachers had been unable to put up with them. But at Agno, with the help of the other children and the freedom they enjoyed, they managed to find again their own rhythm of work, and thenceforward they worked each day to their full capacity. This miracle was due to a triple freedom: freedom of choice, freedom of movement, and freedom to do the full span of work that was in them to do at their own pace.

In her lectures Madame Boschetti used to describe not what she had done, but simply what she had observed. She gave case-histories and always added: 'I did nothing myself—there was no need to do anything except let nature have her way.' In her book *Diario di Muzzano*¹ she tells how an uncle's sensible remarks about obedience in school children first opened her eyes to the drawbacks of current education and to its mistakes. When she got a grant for the study of new methods of teaching defective children she asked her father to let her go to Italy. This he refused at first, since the inspectorate wanted to

keep her in Switzerland, but the girl especially wished to study state and municipal schools because she was seeking an answer to a question which obsessed her: 'Why are children so inert and lifeless *in* school, when they are so full of life outside it?' She borrowed the necessary money from her local priest and set off. From north to south she went, visiting many institutions for handicapped children, which she found touching rather than immediately apposite to her purpose. At last she found what she was seeking. At the *Umanitaria* at Milan, Anna Feddi, a great teacher and a great spirit, shewed her that *silence* is the greatest single virtue a teacher can possess. And indeed the children in Dr. Montessori's schools are all active and shew remarkable concentration. Madame Boschetti was captivated by the naturalness and freshness of these children, the serene atmosphere in which they were working, their tranquil joy working in freedom.

When she got back to her country, she discovered her own method which was to bring her such renown. The school day begins with the 'Order' which the children make up themselves. Then comes 'conversation'—each one expresses himself freely, conveying his thoughts and wishes. These communications, which the older ones jot down in their log-book, are at first very matter-of-fact, but they give rise to new discussions and to comments, which lead by degrees to comparisons and to the expression of rough ideas about justice, and which end by evoking, without waste of words, all that is fairest and best in all, or almost all, children when they are brought gently to reflective thinking and when they live in an atmosphere of love. Many difficulties, setbacks and disappointments intervene before one can help them to understand that liberty is the fruit of self-control. For everything that a child has not understood for himself may be passively accepted by him, but will never become a spontaneous part of his own activity. And every passive acceptance which a child makes delays the acquisition of true self-mastery, which is the source of joy, pride and even generosity itself. Only such self-mastery enables one to come to terms with life.

A child becomes reconciled to life from the day when, as Madame Montessori puts it, he

¹ The infants' school where she was before she went to Agno. Published by 'La Scuola', Brescia, 1939.

succeeds in 'centering' himself in an activity which he has chosen. And when two or three have got the habit of such concentration, others in their group are drawn to do likewise. Things that diffuse or distract their attention bore them; they love to follow a trail, and learn to resist everything, however attractive, that puts them off the scent.

In her book, Madame Boschetti admits that her first examination results were so disastrous that she consented, on the advice of her inspectors, to revert to the old classical methods. The children adapted themselves passively to her wishes, but they looked at her sadly—she was losing their confidence. The parents also noticed that the children had lost their desire to work on their own. This was an intolerable situation for a teacher who knew quite well that her own method had been the true one. So finally she got permission from the Director of Public Education to do as she thought best. She took up her work again with joy—and to the joy of her children. Day after day she confirmed her conviction that external compulsion is *the* major obstacle to inner order. She confirmed too the fact that when the child is 'centred' he will embark easily, with passion and with an extraordinary patience, upon no matter what intellectual task—arithmetic, grammar, geography, history—so long as he is thereby gaining knowledge which satisfies his own inner interest and need, without any artificial exterior stimulus.

Madame Boschetti has also noted that there is practically no limit to the creative power of children when they are given the chance to express themselves freely. Free composition, poems (often in dialect) evince a power of observation unsuspected in these young country children—quite apart from the charm of their naïf and quite spontaneous writings. One little monkey took three months to 'centre' himself and then launched himself into a study of natural history. One day somebody said to him 'Well, Henri, you don't tease animals any more. Why's that?' He answered: 'Because we mustn't bring disorder into the kingdom of God.'

At Agno Mme Boschetti was concerned with the older children. Her method was the same, although many of her pupils had already been deformed by traditional methods during their earlier schooling. It was at Agno that I was privileged to watch her work during many long

days. These children were quite simple, quite ordinary if one judged them by their home backgrounds and their origins, but they were extraordinary from the point of view of their spiritual balance, their grace and graciousness, the diligence and concentration of their work. At the beginning of the school year they examined the official curriculum together. Mme Boschetti explained the usefulness and interest of the various branches of human knowledge. Together they sought for the books and materials to which they could best go for their sources. They learnt to use indices, tables of contents, etc. The field widened before their eyes. And so they set to work, each over matters that appealed most directly to him. I have already told you what were the results.

Yes, a teacher of genius has just died. She was little understood by those about her during her lifetime. In some decades she will be recognized as a forerunner, not only in school matters but even more in intellectual and moral matters. Her intuition brought her fact to face with truth itself.

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Dr. Joad ★

An Introduction to Contemporary Knowledge

C. E. M. JOAD, M.A., D.LIT.

The first book of a series intended to give a broader view-point to the pupil in his last year at school.

The aim of this book is to give to young people from fifteen to twenty years of age some conception of the state of modern knowledge regarding the nature of the universe, the word universe having reference here not only to the physical universe but to the realms also of the mind and the spirit. The book provides a perspective of human knowledge and outlook to-day in regard to such matters as evolution, religion, history, culture, art, as well as physics and astronomy.

The author seeks to answer such questions as—What is the origin of life? What are the point and purpose of being alive? How did the human adventure begin? What has been its past and what is likely to be its future?—questions always of urgent and vital import, but never so urgent as during the time of youth's intellectual awakening.

4/6

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Book Reviews

Long Term Results of Infant School Methods. D. E. M. Gardner. (Methuen. 8/6).

It has sometimes been said that it is a pity that only those who believe in freer methods write and research on them. But this must be so in the nature of things. It is possible to measure (as indeed Miss Gardner has done) results by 'the yardstick of what was commonly achieved in the more conventional type of school', but even if the results were more conclusively in favour of freer methods than the remarkably favourable results shown in this investigation, no believer in 'modern methods' would feel that his aims had necessarily been achieved. While giving the three R's their proper place—not regarding them as ends in themselves or as the sole measures of progress in the Primary School, but as instruments for the transmission of culture—we have other and deeper aims in our advocacy of this approach to education. These are much more difficult to measure and can only be appraised by those who understand the aims. Which raises the question—are there in fact people who do not believe in the activity approach? Are there only those who have not yet discovered what it is about? Can there be teachers who do not believe it valuable to train children to think in a variety of ways; to be inventive, ingenious and creative as well as to be able to remember; to be imaginative and curious as well as to be able to reproduce what the teacher has taught? All teachers agree that for children to learn to concentrate is of first importance in their development. All must believe that the ultimate test of reading, writing and arithmetic methods is the extent to which children have these skills really available for use. Miss Gardner has demonstrated in her testing of children in junior schools 'of a traditional type' of children who come from formal and experimental schools (both 'good' of their kind) that those brought up on freer methods excel in all these respects. She has been most conservative in her conclusions which are expressed in moderate terms with the benefit of every doubt given to the 'control' or 'formal' schools and yet the aggregate results remain outstandingly in favour of freer methods.

The research that we wait for is that carried out on children who have been through 'activity' infant, junior and secondary modern schools. Are we satisfied with the long-term results of the more conventional education?

Such researches as there have been into the reading habits of average adults, the amount of history, geography, etc., retained two years after the end of school life and, worse still, the evidence of negative attitudes to school work make melancholy reading.

The subjective judgments in this book on children's attitudes to their work and to the testers are of such interest that we must agree strongly with one examiner's report on the need for further tests of personality and attitude.

Those teachers who have had real experience of activity methods will not need to be convinced of their value, and no one can be convinced without experience but we live in an age which demands a statistical basis for belief, and Miss Gardner has earned our grateful thanks for providing it.

M. Brearley

Diagnostic and Attainment Testing. Fred J. Schonell and F. Eleanor Schonell. (Oliver and Boyd, Edinburgh, Macmillan and Co., Melbourne. 18/6).

Schonell's books on the teaching of the basic subjects and the treatment of backwardness have been read by many teachers in Britain and his tests are widely used in our schools. But so far we have not had a book by him which embodies almost all his various tests in a single volume.

This book contains the seven reading tests of which two are oral tests, two comprehensive tests and three diagnostic tests; the two parallel series of 'Essential Arithmetic' each with separate mechanical and problem arithmetic tests, and 13 diagnostic arithmetical tests; two graded word spelling tests; five diagnostic tests of written English relating to punctuation, grammatical usage, vocabulary, variety and correctness of sentence structure. These can also be used for attainment measures provided strict time limits are observed. In a separate chapter, median samples of written composition are given and their marking is discussed. Some new tests and compositions are included and all are printed in the same big quarto format as the reprints of the tests when issued in separate sheets or booklets. The 'Essential Intelligence Test' is not included in the volume.

The test material is preceded by three chapters on the main principles which have to be observed to make tests effective for assessing attainment levels and diagnosing any individual

difficulties and their nature. The choice of the tests, their administration, interpretation and the recording of the results are described and explained in detail. But the instructions for the tests, which are given in the handbooks or in the manuals of directions for the various tests, are, unfortunately, not reproduced here and the reader is referred to Professor Schonell's previous books. It would be of great advantage if they could be set out in full so that the whole material is completely included in one single handbook, and we would suggest that this amendment should be made and the missing pagination of pp. 107-112 and 133-143 be inserted in the next edition.

The tables of norms are reprinted for each test. They are slightly lower than the original norms because it appears from current research that post-war reading standards have decreased particularly in some secondary modern schools, and further because the previous standardization related only to those seven and eight year olds in the junior schools, while the present one includes the seven year olds in infant classes as well.

The last chapters contain a guide to remedial material for backward pupils and a short list of books on testing and remedial methods, to the latter of which we would suggest references to the 'Duncan Readers', to James Hemming's 'Ready Readers' and Pocock's 'Slow and Sure' Reading Books.

To sum up: this is a most useful reference book, enabling teachers to know what points must be observed to achieve correct interpretations. As Professor Schonell says, too much reliance should not be placed on an isolated test finding, for tests have their limitations as well as their value.

K. F. Hirsch

Visual Methods in Education.

W. L. Sumner (Blackwell. 12/6),

is 'founded on the courses of lectures and demonstrations given by the author', and is the more useful for being so. When we read a book which

sets out to give a comprehensive study of a topic, we expect to find sections in which the author is obviously very interested and which he expands with bewildering technicalities. We also expect sections which have been glossed over because they do not interest the author, or because he does not know much about that part of the subject. Mr. Sumner, however, has not fallen into these errors. He has had to interest and instruct a variety of people in the use of visual methods, and so has achieved a nice balance between the various aspects of the subject. His book touches upon all the topics which an intending user of visual aids would need to consider, and the extensive bibliographies provide the means by which anyone interested in a particular topic can go further.

Not only has Mr. Sumner had much personal experience in the use of visual aids of all types, but he has also studied the history, philosophy, physiology and psychology of these methods. The chapters on these matters are enjoyable, and we feel that they are a summary of the wide knowledge that the author himself has acquired with enjoyment, rather than undigested snippets from the standard reference books. He quotes extensively from many authorities, but also speaks with considerable personal authority.

After a brief but enthralling sketch of the past history of visual methods, the author gives an account of the physiology and psychology of seeing. He then details some of the visual tools which can be used by the teachers, giving considerable attention to the blackboard, which is an encouraging sign of a sense of proportion in any exponent of visual methods. Although the very interesting chapter devoted to a discussion of visual methods and language does not fit into the logical scheme, it is difficult to see where else it could go! The two chapters on optical aids are written with the authority of intimate knowledge of the principles and practice of using all types of instruments for projecting images, still or moving, but there are not too many technicalities.

After some suggestions about the possible use of visual methods in various subjects, in which the importance of optical aids is not over-emphasised, there is a brief survey of some of the bodies concerned with the organization of visual aids in this country.

There are appendices on several topics which will interest the enthusiast, but which will also merit the attention of the general reader.

This book, which is illustrated with photographs and diagrams, is recommended to anyone wishing to gain an overall knowledge of visual methods, and also as a reference book for the more advanced user of all types of visual aids.

J. E. Stuart.

NOTICES

An Easter Course on Psychology and Health

The Davidson Clinic, 26 Chalmers Street, Edinburgh, announce an Easter course, to be held in Edinburgh from the 28th March to the 3rd April. The guest lecturer will be Dr. J. L. Halliday, and other speakers are Professor A. D. Ritchie, Dr. Winifred Rushforth, Dr. Jean Biggar, and Dr. W. P. Kraemer. There will be lectures on the Psychological Health of the Infant, Pre-school Child, School Child, Adolescent and Adult; on Preparation for Parenthood; and on the Psychosomatic Approach to General Medicine and to certain common diseases. Full details are available from the Clinic.

The Kindergarten at the Decroly School

We are informed by the Decroly School 'L'Hermitage', founded by the late Dr. O. Decroly in 1907, that copies of the above film (silent, 16 m/m film, length 35 minutes, with explanatory text—made in June 1950) may be obtained, price 2000 Belgian Francs, from: ECOLE DECROLY 'L'Hermitage', 45, Drève des Gendarmes, Uccle, Brussels, Belgium. (Postal Office Account Brussels, No. 149.26.)

BEDALES SCHOOL

PETERSFIELD HANTS (Founded 1893)

A Co-educational Boarding School for boys and girls from 11½-18. Separate Junior School for those from 5-11. Inspected by the Ministry of Education. Country estate of 150 acres. Home Farm. Education is on modern lines and aims at securing the fullest individual development in, and through, the community.

Headmaster: **H. B. JACKS, M.A. (Oxon.)**

FRENSHAM HEIGHTS FARNHAM, SURREY.

Headmaster: **KENNETH KEAST, M.A.**

Frensham Heights is a co-educational school containing at present 160 boarders and 40 day pupils equally divided as to sex and equally distributed in age from 8 to 18.

The school stands in a high position in 170 acres of ground. There is a separate Junior School for children from 8 to 11.

Fees: £210 per annum inclusive.

About three scholarships are offered annually.

For particulars apply Headmaster.

Directory of Schools—continued

KILQUHANITY HOUSE

CASTLE DOUGLAS

SCOTLAND

FOR BOYS AND GIRLS 3-18 YEARS

Established in 1940, Kilquhanity House frankly owes its inception to the work of A. S. Neill, who now considers it in the direct line of his own school and that of Homer Lane. It does not, however, cater for problem children. In practice there is an attempt to combine the traditional thoroughness of Scottish education with self-government for the pupils. Activity methods are used throughout, and the teaching staff is qualified to the standards demanded by the Scottish Education Department, which inspects the school. There is ample opportunity for practice in all the creative arts. A small mixed farm is a fundamental part—as distinct from an adjunct—of the school. The diet is on food reform lines, though children do not require to be vegetarian.

Fees : £150-£180 PER ANNUM

Headmaster : J. M. AITKENHEAD, M.A. (Hons.), Ed.B

DARTINGTON HALL

TOTNES

DEVON

Headmaster : W. B. CURRY, M.A., B.Sc.

A co-educational boarding school for boys and girls from 2-18 in the centre of a 2,000 acre estate engaged in the scientific development of rural industries. The school gives to Arts and Crafts, Dance, Drama and Music the special attention customary in progressive schools, and combines a modern outlook which is non-sectarian and international with a free and informal atmosphere. It aims to establish the high intellectual and academic standards of the best traditional schools.

Fees : £180-£210 per annum.

A limited number of scholarships are available, and further information about these may be obtained from the Headmaster.

BADMINTON SCHOOL

Westbury-on-Trym

:: BRISTOL. ::

Junior School 6 to 11 years

Senior School 12 to 19 years

The School is situated in large grounds and within easy reach of Bristol, so the older girls are able to enjoy many of the advantages provided by a University City. A high standard of scholarship is maintained and at the same time an interest in creative work is developed by the practical and theoretical study of Art and Music. There are weekly discussions on World Affairs and more intensive work on Social and International problems is done by means of voluntary Study Circles.

Apply to The Secretary.

Wychwood School, Oxford

RECOGNIZED BY MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

Maximum of 80 girls (boarding and day pupils) aged 10-18. Small classes, large graduate staff. Education in widest sense under unusually happy and free conditions. Exceptional health record. Elder girls can work for universities, can specialize in Music, or take year's training at Wychlea (Domestic Science House). Playing fields, bathing pool.

Principals : Miss MARGARET LEE, M.A. (Oxon.)

Late University Tutor in English

Miss E. M. SNODGRASS, M.A. (Oxon.)

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LANE END

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Principals : MISS M. E. BOYLE, B.A.

MISS H. J. ROBINSON, N.F.U.

PENDRAGON HALL

59 Bath Road, Reading, Berks.

A co-educational boarding and day school for children between 5 and 14 years of age. Original curriculum designed to foster individual growth and social responsibility.

Also **TRAINING SCHOOL FOR MARGARET MORRIS MOVEMENT** (Southern Centre)

The new Theatre is being built and there are vacancies for students (aged 14 or over) who wish to make a career of Margaret Morris Movement in its teaching, medical or stage aspects. Dennis March, B.A. Sylvia March, L.R.A.M. Claire Cassidy, M.M.M.

THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

KIRKCUDBRIGHT CHILDREN'S THEATRE

Cecile Walton, Author of 'The Children's Theatre Book'

OCCASIONALLY our most impulsive gestures are borne of our most conscious desires. In 1949 I went to live in Kirkcudbright, which although a Royal Borough is only a village in size, surrounded by some of the most lovely country in Scotland. In the autumn of that year I met the teacher of the Infant class in the Academy. She had been trained by Madame Montessori and clung courageously to her ideas of self-discipline and interested occupation against great odds. She saw the small children pass out of her hands into a world very different from her own, but in compensation for this she invited some of the children who did not fit very happily into the community to little parties in her cottage where they sang, read and played games. I was asked to join this group one evening and found them singing carols. I was struck not by their ability but by their enthusiasm. What a pity, I thought, that these children are singing for no special object. So as my studio had been a stable I suggested they should have a Nativity Play in my gallery which had once been the hayloft. It was a very simple affair with some dozen angels in bath-towels and paper wings, and some very noisy shepherds wrapped in Army blankets, but the picture was so charming that the children were invited to give a per-

formance in the Community Centre. This was a success and from this time onwards my studio was invaded by the children wanting more, and the idea of a Children's Theatre suddenly occurred to me as being possible—not a Children's Theatre in which grown-ups amuse children, but a theatre where children amuse grown-ups and themselves. I discussed this with a collection of children from six to thirteen years of age. 'How do we have a theatre?' they said. So I suggested they should first have a procession through the town with their own banner and a large dinner-bell, which they got from a second-hand shop as a loan, for they were very careful about money. And this procession progressed through the town gathering adherents as it went.

A pre-arranged meeting was held in the Community Centre for a very noisy election and formed a committee, all under fifteen, the Chairman and the vice-Chairman each with two secretaries and another six secretaries who did not want to be left out. This proved in the future to be extremely useful. It was this little team which to-day is still the most dynamic factor in the theatre.

The formation of the children's theatre and committee was interesting to watch. Before the procession through the town to the inaugural meeting some fifteen enthusiasts met and

THE CHILDREN'S THEATRE BOOK

For Young
Dancers and Actors
by
CECILE WALTON

"A very excellent publication containing much valuable and interesting matter. It covers a wide range of Theatre Art in such a way that will arrest the attention of all children who are interested not only in dancing and acting, but in making things."

Dancing Times.

"She gives detailed instructions in simple terms for making a model theatre, masks, flowers, hats, wigs; the proper use of make-up; the theory of costume and an intelligent approach to the making of it; advice to dancers on their food, feet and general health." *New Era.*

With 6 plates and 92 drawings by the author and Edward Robertson. 10s. 6d. net.

Published by
ADAM AND CHARLES BLACK.





Photo by]

[James C. Gair, Dumfries

Cinderella and the ugly sisters, Pantomime, 1950.

pre-arranged the committee and a proposed constitution. A girl about thirteen, who later showed little powers of concentration or co-operation, dominated the group and, herself becoming chairman, conducted the voting-in of the committee amidst great clamour. She had excellent powers of dictatorship. At the meeting in the Community Centre some fifty children were present who agreed to the constitution.

KIRKCUDBRIGHT CHILDREN'S THEATRE—CONSTITUTION

1. Purpose—Acting of plays and other entertainments
2. Members—Children under 15 who form the committee and living in the Burgh of Kirkcudbright, also associate members of over fifteen who can be asked to give their services in any way that is needed
3. Subscriptions—All members 1/- annually
4. Working committee of under 15 to consist of Chairman, Vice-Chairman, four Chairman's Secretaries and four Secretaries for the organizing Secretary
5. Sub-committees and extra secretaries can be formed as required
6. Working committee to be elected annually during Easter holidays during annual meeting
7. Besides working committee there shall be organisers from the associate members, to be elected annually by working committee
8. Those wishing to join Kirkcudbright Children's Theatre can enter their names now. The Annual subscription of a 1/- if not paid now should be given within a week to Margaret Brown, 6 Dovescroft, Kirkcudbright
9. Members wishing to take part in Pageant in July, the boys being cavemen and the girls fairies, should give their names to Margaret Brown when signing

membership. Members will be told later when meetings and rehearsals are to be held. (Posters will be seen in shop windows)

Questions and Suggestions

Badge? (which never successfully materialized)

Suggestions for raising money. (The jumble sale)

Emblem for theatre—primrose—green background with yellow primrose and lettering

The above emerged after an hour and a half's discussion and is given just as it was written down. This loose constitution saved a great deal of heart-break, as members not on the working committee could be formed into sub-committees at a moment's notice, and secretaries added, to the complete satisfaction of everyone. Being a secretary—having a pencil and paper and making notes and writing letters—was considered as important as being cast for the part of Prince or Princess in the play. Both the boys and girls took the clerking with great seriousness, and to be entrusted to write a letter to a local paper was considered to be placed in very high office indeed. Simple filing and the posting of letters and buying stamps were thought of as an act of extreme importance.

Their appearance in the town Pageant brought them £3 in prizes and great acclamation from their fellow townsfolk.

No play took place till the following winter when three children aged about ten wrote their own version of 'The Sleeping Beauty'. By this time there were fifty members, and the boys were so wild that the girls decided that they would have only two boys in their play and that the boys could do a play by themselves. The first method of writing the play was for three children to speak the lines they thought suitable and take a turn at writing the script. But this was so tiring to them, as their minds raced ahead, that in the end they dictated to me. These children are bi-lingual in that they speak English in school and have their own local dialect which is Lowland Scottish with an Irish accent. I was amused to find that the Prince and Princess and the Good Fairy spoke in very high-falutin' English, while the comic characters broke out into the most effective 'Doric'.

The change from ordinary English into 'Doric' is unfortunately not very perceptible in the script

as few children know how to write or spell their own dialect. While acting they automatically changed the words, but in the beginning of the first scene of 'The Sleeping Beauty' there is a passage :

Enter JACK (the stable boy) and FATIMA (the cook) fighting.

FAT. : You naughty boy, you have been putting your fingers in my dough.

JACK (*sucking his fingers*) : No, I didn't.

FAT. : You did !

JACK : I did sot—er—er—, I did *not*.

FAT. : You did sot, you naughty scoundrel !

JACK : I didna touch it.

FAT. : Well, here you can tac' it. (*Throws the dough in his face*).

In reality the language broke down much more quickly as the actors got excited.

On the other hand, when the Prince awakens the Princess by kissing her hand saying : 'My Princess awake !' she (waking) replies, 'Where am I ? What has happened to me ?' And he says : 'You have been sleeping for a hundred years, my darling. I have been looking for you for a century. I love you very much. Will you be my Queen ?' Later, he asks the King and Queen for the Princess' hand in marriage. The Royal parents simultaneously exclaim : 'You deserve our daughter.' The Queen adds : 'Come let us have a coronation and a wedding.' No time is lost throughout the play and the action was only held long enough to admit of popular songs such as : 'An Apple Blossom Wedding', or 'Lavender Blue'.

The second Pantomime in 1950 was followed by a play quite starkly realistic about an old woman who pretends to be dead in order to discover who was most worthy to inherit her money. Here Mrs. Parker (Nosey) appears on the scene at the Wake to exclaim : 'Oh dear me, there isn't any whisky, wine or meat to eat. I've gone without my breakfast to-day to keep me appetite for this occasion ! Mr. Brown, how much money had Mrs. Ashbell to leave us ?' This given with much local intonation. Whisky being pronounced 'whusky'.

As far as possible I arranged for the children to make their own costumes from material that was given them, but we needed money, and they had no hesitation as to how to obtain it. They decided on a Jumble Sale and the town was ransacked for all manner of objects. I had never been to a Jumble Sale in my life before and it proved quite a terrifying affair. The children arranged their stalls and at 11 a.m. precisely the doors were flung open and all the mothers of the town stampeded in ; from then on it was a free fight between the children and the mothers as to what price should be paid for the articles on sale. However, they raised £10, which was quite sufficient for our needs.

When rehearsals started, the problem was to find adequate space to rehearse fifty children, and I appealed to the Education Authority who gave me the hall in the Primary School. By this time several associates had joined the Theatre and they were allowed to be any age up to ninety-nine. These assisted occasionally at the rehearsals. I found that the children had absolutely no idea of how complicated the rehearsals would be, but they themselves took over after the third rehearsal. The noise at every rehearsal was absolutely incredible and none of the helpers believed that we would ever be able to stage our show. I found that all the children were very quick at learning their parts from the script, but



Photo by]

[J. H. Maxwell, Ltd., Castle Douglas

'The boys were so wild . . . ' Pageant, 1949

only about three of them had a real theatre sense. There is no difficulty in putting on a show of this kind in a small town and one sees immediately how much in the general sense the community will support children, not only Grannies coming long distances by bus to see the performance, but electricians, carpenters and other tradesfolk doing everything they can to make the Pantomime a success.

The children were curiously conscious of the importance of the Press. They wrote to the newspapers, both the local papers and the *Scottish Daily Express*, and at our dress rehearsal a reporter and photographer arrived. I saw nothing of these people myself but left all the interviewing to the children. The photographer demanded a tableau and ballerinas hastily got into their gauzy dresses, leaving on their winter boots. The electricians were putting in the lighting and a demon boy let off a squib behind them. This was attributed by the reporter to a plot on the part of our King, and, the report appearing in the Press, I had to rush and prevent an irate father from thrashing his son, who had been quite wrongly accused. Much to the children's horror the newspaper pretended that the reporter had been present at the actual performance, and I think I took a great delight in pointing out that this was an excellent example of how reportage is often done.

Since then the Theatre has gone from strength to strength and has now about eighty members. As that number of children was quite unwieldy, the under-fifteen committee decided to have three plays in 1950. Again the boys were segregated, and indeed the wildness of the children, whose discipline is controlled by bodily chastisement, is difficult to control by any other method.

Reviewing the activities of the Theatre during the last few years, I feel that the children have taken advantage of the dramatic possibilities, but it has been a great loss to them not to have been able to make all the costumes and scenery themselves with less adult aid. I would say that education through drama is probably the finest project work that one can organize, since it gives them the freedom of every human expression and escapes the strain of sedentary work. It has been fascinating to watch the development of one or two rather neurotic little creatures who through the intimacy that the theatre permits have told of their dreams and their frightening experiences by way of dramatic illustration. One has a tremendous advantage in organizing children out of school hours, in that they have no suspicion that one might have any ulterior motive or that one hopes to substitute for their continued attendance at the pictures something in which they can fully exercise their own imagination and physical powers.

THIRTY YEARS OF RESEARCH

G. Patrick Meredith, Professor in the University of Leeds

MRS. Blackwell and the National Foundation for Educational Research deserve our thanks and congratulations for this production.¹ It is a mine of information. Like other mines it does not reveal its full content to superficial inspection, and again like other mines, it is capable of being mined by different methods. At first sight it seems a slim volume for the price of one guinea but when you look into the value of the mineral rights you will realise that the contents of this book are well-nigh priceless.

¹ National Foundation for Educational Research in England and Wales. Publication No. 1. *A List of Researches in Education and Educational Psychology*.

Presented for higher degrees in the Universities of the United Kingdom, Northern Ireland, and the Irish Republic from 1918 to 1948.

Classified according to a modification of the Dewey Decimal System by A. M. Blackwell, M.A., B.Sc., Senior Lecturer in Education, University of London, King's College. With a foreword by Sir Fred Clarke, M.A., Litt. D., Chairman of the Executive Committee of the Foundation until November, 1949, £1 1s. 0d.

But in order to extract this value you must undertake extensive mining operations.

This is not, of course, a readable book, in the ordinary sense of the word 'readable'. But it will give all kinds of different information to all kinds of different readers. Similarly no two reviewers will review it in quite the same terms. In this review I shall attempt to show some of the kinds of information which can be extracted, as well as some of the ideas which this publication evokes.

But the book itself must first be described and discussed. In a Foreword Sir Fred Clarke puts his finger on the issue to which this publication owes its main significance.

'The establishment of University Institutes of Education having facilities for the promotion of special studies sets a new problem of efficient and economical co-operation. On the one hand waste and duplication of effort must be avoided; on the other hand students in any

particular field will be helped if they can know what work has already been done within that range. The securing of these desirable ends does seem to call for close co-operation both among the Institutes themselves and between the Institutes generally and the National Foundation. The work of compilation that Mrs. Blackwell has done provides an instrument that is quite indispensable for such purposes.'

This list makes possible a quite new step forward in the business of furthering the art and science of education. By charting the exploratory steps taken during the past thirty years by hundreds of scattered and unco-ordinated individuals it can give us our bearings before we go on to deliberately planned collective exploration.

A summary of the sections then follows, in two parts: I. Educational Psychology, and II, Education. The classification is a modification of the Dewey Decimal System, and since this is widely used in libraries it has a *prima facie* claim whatever its logical and epistemological defects. At any rate, whatever faults there are in the system, they are Dewey's faults not Mrs. Blackwell's. But, of course, in the *application* of the system the author cannot avoid responsibility for numerous classificatory decisions which are unavoidably arbitrary. She must have had many headaches, and there are inevitable inconsistencies. For example under '159.9552 Concepts' we find brought together two radically distinct uses of the word, *e.g.* 'Clearness variation in children's concepts' where the concept is the *object* of study and 'The concept of activity' where the concept is the study. This points to the weakness of any one-dimensional system such as Dewey's. The typical thesis title embodies a relationship between several themes. The classifier is forced to single out one of these. It may or may not be the principal one and in any case it is the *relationship* which is the most important feature of the study. Thus the very act of classification squanders and distorts the information to be classified. For this reason the firmest value of this book lies in the fact that it brings together a complete list of thesis titles, not the fact that it classifies them. And the specialist research-worker looking up the references for his speciality will do well to look through a good many related sections rather than to rely upon the formal heading of his subject in the Dewey System as necessarily covering all the relevant researches. The 'Transfer of Training', a topic

of special interest to me, appears from the list to have been the subject of only five theses in thirty years, and I am sure this is a substantial under-representation. Thus the Dewey System cannot be relied upon to give accurate placement to all the endlessly varied themes and relationships of educational and psychological research. The important feature of the book is its content not its framework. It allows any number of acts of re-classification for different purposes.

After the list of main sections comes an extremely useful note on the availability of theses. Naturally precautions against loss need to be stringent for these irreplaceable documents, but it is a pity that regulations concerning the borrowing of these vary so much among the different universities. Top marks should go to Liverpool which prefers to send microfilms instead of lending original theses. This is the obvious scientific solution to the problem of distributing unique scientific information. Could the National Foundation do something towards encouraging this practice? For Belfast, Cambridge and Reading the regulation is bluntly: 'Theses may not be borrowed.' Bottom marks. Is it not realised that to render a student's research-report non-available is an injustice to the student and a disservice to the cause of education?

The main body of the book now follows. This is divided into sub-sections according to the second decimal figure in the Dewey System, *e.g.* 159.92 is 'Mental Development and Capacity—Comparative Psychology'. The detailed list of sub-sections is given from 159.92 up to 159.98 ('Relations to Other Subjects'). Then, under each heading, sometimes down to the sixth decimal figure, comes the substance of the book: author, title, degree, university and date, for each of the theses. The total number, I estimate (not having counted) lies between 1200 and 1500 titles, a whole generation's work, the proportions of psychological titles to educational titles being roughly in the ratio of 2 to 3. The volume concludes with an index of themes alphabetically arranged, each with its own Dewey Decimal number, but not the page numbers. There is a type of research-worker who may want to examine a large group of titles, and the effort of repeatedly searching for numbers of 8 or 9 digits is bound to involve vexatious delays. This volume will achieve its major significance, I believe, in relation to this type of research-worker, and this must now be considered.

In the current number of the A.T.C.D.E. *Bulletin of Education* appears an analysis of Mrs. Blackwell's original list, published in the *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 1943-5. I made this analysis before knowing that the Foundation was to publish so soon the up-to-date list (i.e. up to 1948). The analysis was made for the purpose of what I refer to as 'Research of the Second Order' and it aims to show the frequencies of the various themes occurring in the thesis-titles. The point of this is that whereas Research of the First Order consists of enquiries into particular problems this other research enquires into the movement, direction and pattern of the particular researches. Now who is likely to concern himself with Second Order Research? The answer is all who are concerned with the advancement of education as distinct from the furtherance of particular techniques, policies or doctrines. There is no conflict between the two types of research and no reason why one and the same person should not take an active part or at any rate an active interest in both. Indeed, First Order Research must derive its wider significance from the findings of Second Order Research, for it is the function of the latter to reveal the perspective of the whole movement of enquiry into the social provision for the development of the young. Without some glimpse of this perspective, the tasks of interpretation and training, of administration and legislation, and of the actual business of teaching, must be carried on in blinkers. Thus Second Order Research offers something of vital importance to the Institutes of Education and their constituent colleges and university departments, to Local Authorities and the Ministry, to head teachers and their staffs. It should have a message, too, for educational publishers and authors. By plotting the currents of enquiry in the whole fluid body of educational investigation—the aggregate of probing minds, some creative, bold and original, some cautiously following prevailing trends, some demolishing persistent fallacies—Second Order Research will tell us something about democracy itself.

We must bear in mind, of course, that the researches in Mrs. Blackwell's List do not constitute the whole body of educational research carried out in this country in the past thirty years, but only those researches which have been successfully presented for higher degrees. Further the List naturally gives the titles only, not the findings. From the nature of the case, the

majority of the authors were, at the time, relatively immature as research workers go. For some of them it was their one and only research effort before promotion swept them away. We have no means of telling from the List what were the currents of interest and influence which determined the choice of theme. Second Order Research might throw light on this. One way of analysing the list would be to plot the frequencies of themes in different universities over the years, and to correlate these, where possible, either with the interests of dominant personalities or with current controversies in the educational press. Thus could be written a new chapter in the history of education. One such personality, that of Spearman—not himself an educationist as such—would assuredly loom large among the influences determining the trends of research. In my analysis of the original List, themes concerning *tests* and *factors* easily outweighed all other themes. It is interesting to note, by contrast, that, in spite of Freud and the whole psycho-analytic movement, the theme of Sex occurs only twice in the whole list (apart from the colourless term 'Sex-Difference') and is not even mentioned in the Index. Educational problems seem to be graced with exceptional chastity or perhaps research-workers are disproportionately virginal. Or may it be that—as psycho-analysis would lead us to expect—this uncomfortable theme is repressed from the pre-conscious title but maintains a subterranean existence in the main substance of the theses? Another important theme, which, perhaps for similar reasons, receives very scant explicit mention is that of Punishment.

The typical issues with which Second Order Research should concern itself are, e.g. the criteria by which to judge whether the frequencies of different themes are disproportionately high or low in relation to general needs. If it is revealed that important fields are seriously neglected, steps can be taken to stimulate research in those fields. Compared with many of the natural sciences, education has but a tiny army of research-workers and it needs to deploy its forces according to a well-considered strategy. Second Order Research must be the foundation of its logistics. Mrs. Blackwell has provided the Intelligence Branch of this army with an invaluable mass of data on the distribution of its forces over the past thirty years. It is for them to submit these data to expert interpretation.

INTERPRETING TEACHERS' GROUP DISCUSSIONS

E. L. Herbert, Education Department, Manchester University

ONE of the difficulties of explaining free group discussion techniques is that they sound so familiar. Everyone has attended study groups or debating societies and it is difficult to believe that there can be new ways of conducting discussions. Such was my own state of mind when first I heard of interpretative group discussions practised by the Tavistock Institute of Human Relations in order to study and improve group relations in factories and hospitals.

For years I had been puzzled by the same problem: Why are school classes so different from one another? What is this class 'spirit' that any experienced teacher can detect as soon as he enters the classroom? It seemed to me that teachers whose whole life is spent with children in groups might possibly profit by the application of the Tavistock methods. I asked to join a group and through an arrangement between the Manchester University and the Tavistock Institute I was allowed to do so.

This group consisted of eight members, among whom I was the only teacher. As could be expected, the first thing that happened was that an embarrassed silence fell upon the group. The therapist in charge did not attempt to break it and it was left to one of the members to do so. We spoke of our motives in forming the group. Silence fell at intervals coupled with a growing feeling of annoyance with our leader. When at last he interpreted one of these silences as expressing the fear of our own aggressive feelings towards him the tension was much relieved. For a moment everything seemed simple: we could talk to him. Why had he left us to flounder? we asked. As no reply was forthcoming we grew angry again. His interpretations, since they were given without anger, allayed our feelings of guilt but they still left us without a leader. We felt frustrated. However, his refusal to make decisions together with the realization of the feelings it aroused in us led us to recognize the process of becoming mature and to appreciate the reality situations of social life. We cannot follow our individual wishes; we do not want to rely on a leader to dictate our conduct. Our only way of living as adults in society is to recognize the conditions of social life.

The first group was run according to rigid

clinical rules, the therapist remaining completely outside the group and refusing any social intercourse with us. Through this avowedly artificial situation the problem of group behaviour had been completely isolated. There had been no purpose but to watch our own relations.

I now decided to run a different kind of group for qualified teachers. This time, there would be a task—a very general one—we would discuss the problem of human relations in school. It meant that I was to play two rôles: firstly, that of a co-worker taking part in the task and, secondly, that of interpreter of the group behaviour. In my first rôle, however, I did not propose to lead the discussion. The method I used can best be compared with modern activity methods. I waited for the material to be provided by the members of the group before I made any contribution. This aroused some hostility—which I interpreted to them—when I refused to lecture, i.e. to lead. The basis of interpretations is that the group often discuss their own problems in the 'here and now' under the guise of objective problems. In other words, the choice of the topic is an expression of the group's present difficulties. Thus, when I refused their request that I should give lectures, they chose to discuss 'handicapped children'—which they felt they were.

Conversely, having, through the interpretations, learnt more about their own group relations, their unconscious assumption of the children's rôle gave them greater insight into the children's difficulties.

The two groups described in these notes differed from a class of children in two respects. Both were brought together artificially and both consisted of adults. The 'activity method' was used in its extreme form in the first and in a slightly modified form in the second, since I gave technical information when it was needed. Similarly, the therapist's interpretations in the first group frankly dealt with unconscious tendencies that were difficult to accept. In the second, group interpretations were used only to clarify the objective problem in the light of unconscious group reactions.

Clearly, the classroom situation resembles the second group more closely than the first. The

(For conclusion, see foot of page 91)

AN INTRODUCTION TO THE ARTS¹

A TRAINING COLLEGE EXPERIMENT

David Jordan, M.A., B.Sc., Principal, Dudley Training College

FOR some years students beginning their course at Dudley Training College have taken an Introductory Course in the first twelve or fourteen days. The courses have changed their form and content each year but the same objectives have been kept in mind on each occasion. Many students still arrive with the feeling that the main business of the College is to increase their scanty store of knowledge either by lecture notes or work on set books. They expect to accumulate rather than assimilate, to accept truth at second hand rather than to discover it for themselves. Unless this attitude is changed they will not approach their College work with a sense of intellectual adventure or attack it with the vigour it properly demands. Moreover, in coming to College they are joining a new community which will greatly influence their attitudes of mind, their standards of value, their philosophy of life. Some little time is therefore needed at the outset for them to sample and savour the ethos of the new community, to make informal and friendly contacts with the staff and with each other, to establish a sense of belonging without which they will feel strangers in a strange land.

We have experimented with a short, specially devised course, long enough and comprehensive enough to have its own characteristic pattern, but not taking too much time from the normal College courses, and arranged so that students are challenged to look at old problems in a new way and to discover comprehensive patterns where they have previously thought in terms of isolated experiences. During this course students meet all the members of the College staff, some of whom they may not meet again as tutors or in lectures, and they also find themselves in groups which represent a random cross section of the College year. They have a good deal of discussion, they explore the local environment, they go to see different types of schools, they experience team work among the staff, they begin to feel that truth is many sided and that one must

hear different views if one is to discover it for oneself, they keep records of daily experiences and reflections which are highly individual both in matter and method. This presentation of a variety of ideas and experiences provides the thrill of a new and vital stimulus and sets a more rapid tempo of work and thought than many have hitherto experienced. It is not quite what most students expect, but four such courses have amply justified our belief in their usefulness and shown us that new students are glad to feel themselves caught up into something which possesses such vigour and vitality.

In 1950 the Introductory Course took as its theme 'Our changing pattern within and without', and under this general heading they spent three days on each of the topics, Education, The Local Environment, and The Arts. Three days of visits were interspersed to give increased variety, and visits were arranged to a school for the partially sighted; school for the sub-normal; school for the deaf; an open air school; an approved school; a Rudolph Steiner school, and the local institution for mental defectives and people who are incurably ill. The section of the course with which this article is concerned is that dealing with the Arts and a timetable of this section is shown in the next column.

Apart from its main purpose this course had a secondary object, that of providing experiences which would illustrate an important principle of learning. We all know the forms of human endeavour called 'the arts', but few of us could adequately define their field. Learning does not begin with definitions. It begins with experiences which alone can provide a content of meaning to the words we use. When definition is possible, and with some forms of human experience it is never possible, it should emerge as the final clarification of our experience. A teacher, wishing a class to understand the meaning of, say, a scalene triangle, should first help the children to isolate that kind of triangle from other kinds; then help the class to see why it is different from other kinds; and finally help the class to put that discovery into words. It is exactly this process which this course was planned to pursue.

¹ *Members of Staff conducting the course :*

Dr. J. Mainwaring, Music; Miss Rosa Wake, Words; Miss I. Brunt, Movement; Mr. J. Lawrie, Miss M. Spender, Miss M. Robinson, Paint and Clay.

	1st Day	2nd Day	3rd Day
Period 1	Introduction to the Course I.B. J.L.	Movement, Phase 2. I.B.	Paint & Clay, Phase 3. M.S. J.L. M.R.
Period 2	Movement Phase 1. I.B.	Music Phase 2. J.M.	Ditto
Period 3	Music, Phase 1. J.M.	Words, Phase 2 R.W.	Ditto
Period 4	Ditto	Paint and Sculpture, Phase 2. M.S. J.L. M.R.	
Period 5	Words, Phase 1 R.W.	Movement, Phase 3 I.B.	General Dis- cussion. All Staff
Period 6	Paint, J.L. Phase 1. M.S. M.R.	Ditto	Ditto
Period 7	Ditto	Words, Phase 3 R.W.	
Period 8	Ditto	Music, Phase 3. J.M.	

The six members of staff who co-operated in the Arts section of the Introductory Course had a number of meetings to discuss and define their general aims and to decide how they could be carried out. In previous years a good deal of lecturing had taken place and it was felt that this year the students should have much more practical experience themselves, so that their generalizations about the nature of art could be based upon some direct experiment. We were not mainly concerned with improving the students' technique in relation to any form of artistic expression; the course was far too short to achieve much in this direction. But it was felt that even in this brief time a great deal could be done to stimulate interest in the arts and to develop appreciation through an increase in sensibility and understanding. The media we used were movement, music words, paint and clay, and the more specific aims of the course were :

- (1) To investigate the nature of pattern and content in the different arts so as to show that art is expression through recognised art forms
- (2) To investigate the relative importance of pattern and content in the different arts so as to discover any basic similarities
- (3) To provide simple experiences in different media as an aid to understanding

INTRODUCING THE STUDENTS TO THE COURSE

One of the difficulties experienced in beginning such work with a new group of students is that too little explanation may prove an insufficient guide, too much may hinder them from forming their own conclusions. Since it was freshness of personal experience at which we aimed, the initial explanation was kept to a minimum. The students were told that they were going to carry out an investigation into the nature of art; members of staff would provide a stimulus, arrange experiences, and suggest lines of enquiry, but the students would be asked to record their own impressions and draw their own conclusions. The initial explanation went something like this :

'Although "Art" is normally thought of as referring to painting and sculpture, in its proper sense the term embraces a much wider group of human activities such as music, poetry, drama, and ballet. This grouping under a single heading implies that "the arts" have certain common characteristics, possibly peculiar to themselves. We shall try to discover what these are.

'The basis of all art is personal expression given characteristic shape or pattern by the artist. In all works of art there are two main elements—content, and form or pattern. The content may be a story to be told, an idea to be expressed, a scene to be recalled, an emotion to be portrayed, a character to be delineated. The artist may wish to depict what he has actually seen or to convey an impression of something which he has only experienced through the eye of the imagination. But whatever the content may be, he will choose a form or pattern fitted to the purpose he has in mind. What we want to do is to discover the nature and relative importance of content and pattern in the various arts. It is interesting, for example, to speculate as to whether any one of the arts is a better medium for a particular purpose than any other, or whether given content can be adequately expressed in any medium providing the artist has perfected his technique of expression. Can one use for similar purposes a startling adjective, a brilliant red, a staccato passage, and an arm out-thrust? If you play a piece of music to a group of people who paint or model under the influence of what they hear, will there be any similarity in the visual patterns they produce to correspond with the pattern of music they have heard? These and similar questions are of interest because the answers would reveal something of the inter-relationship between the arts themselves, and between content and pattern in a particular artistic medium.

'It has been decided that our investigation shall start with the media rather than the finished products so that any generalizations made can be based upon personal experiences rather than upon an intellectual argument. In the arts, in particular, experience of the medium is absolutely necessary. The thinking of a potter or a ballet dancer may be primarily kinaesthetic, their creations progressively built in the movement of the fingers or the body, their inspiration depending upon and growing from their actual use of the vehicle of expression; confine them to a laboriously prepared blueprint and you condemn them to artistic sterility. So we want, as far as possible, to use and experience movement, sound, words, paint, and clay in an experimental fashion to develop our understanding and

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LONGMANS

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deepen our sensibility in relation to the art forms to which they give rise.

The course was planned in three phases. The first dealt largely with form or pattern; the second with content; and in the third they were considered together. A general discussion was arranged for the final session.

In the introductory session the students were warned that true appreciation in the arts did not depend entirely upon intellectual apprehension. Standards of judgment and a capacity to distinguish between the true and the false, between what is sincere and what is pretentious, depend upon a developed quality of sensitivity and aesthetic maturity. To appreciate a work of art the observer must be capable of the necessary quality of response, and the effect of a work of art depends as much upon the sensitivity of the observer as upon the creative capacity of the artist. This sensitivity cannot be learned from books, though they may be of help in defining and describing our reactions. It is best acquired by first hand experience of a creative kind with artistic media and materials.

FORM OR PATTERN IN THE ARTS (PHASE 1)

MOVEMENT

The students came to the gymnasium, changed into suitable clothing, and began by moving freely, making individual patterns on the floor. Without comment, music was introduced and gradually and naturally their individual patterning merged into a common circle, while the introduction of a heavily marked pulse in the music resulted in a uniformly rhythmic step. So they began with natural, balanced and rhythmic movements of the body expressed in the type of simple patterns in which both infants and primitive man might delight. When the pattern develops it begins to serve a social end, men and women choose partners and change partners in the more intricate patterns of folk dance, resolving their individual sex play patterns into the collective circle which reasserts the unity of the group. Such dances as Circassian Circle, Durham Reel, German Clap Dance, and Waltz Country Dance were used as varied examples of this simple type of pattern making in movement—dances in which the pattern predominates as the most important element.

Psychologically it was right to begin with

movements which established the unity of this new group by making group patterns in movement and dance. Something of the gay simplicity of the dances was evident in the group reaction, and a happy, harmonious atmosphere was created in which spontaneous and unselfconscious expression was possible.

MUSIC

As the students came to the music room from the gymnasium, where they had been dancing to music, it was possible to direct their interest to the association between the two activities, and to emphasize the relation between rhythmic movement and rhythmic sounds. They were reminded of the infant's pleasure in rhythmic movement, in being rocked, in swinging, and in the see-saw, and of the early association of these activities with the lullaby, with nursery rhymes, jingles, and the like. After the suggestion had been made that natural movements such as walking, running, nodding, or swaying, are duple and balanced movements, music was shown by illustrations at the piano to be built up from similarly balanced elements. Even the waltz, with its triple measure, was constructed from units each of which consisted of 'two groups of three beats'.

In music as in poetry, painting, and ballet, the students were helped to observe that this rhythmic pattern was a framework in all the arts, and their interest was directed to the nature and significance of melody. They were shown by experiment that a melody is heard as a unit, and the source of this unity was discussed and illustrated.

This led to the illustration of the more elaborate kind of musical pattern made by combining melodies. The pattern of a simple fugue was analysed, and a fugue by Schumann was played with its subjects and answers slightly exaggerated.

The session ended with a return to the dance and its influence on the evolution of musical form. Selections from a classical suite were played and discussed, as a brief suggestion as to how the study of music's most elaborate structure, the symphony, might be approached.

This plan was experimentally varied with one of the groups. At an early stage the following questions were discussed: What is a pattern? What possible patterns can be made from musical

sounds? What are the qualities of sounds which can be used for making musical patterns? The students were surprised to discover that there are only four such qualities. The different kinds of patterns which are made from these singly and in various combinations were then described and illustrated. The sections on rhythm, melody, and polyphony followed as in the other sessions, but the last section, on the relation between the dance and modern musical structures, was omitted. Though this approach had some advantages, it was more difficult to bring in, by this method, so many references to other arts.

PAINT

In this, their first period with paint, the students were asked to consider the elements through which we express ourselves in the various arts. Just as in movement we use our bodies; in writing or speaking, words; in music, sounds; so in painting we start with pigment and a ground on which the pigment is placed. Colour can be applied so that the flat surface is broken up in a number of ways, and the result can be interesting or pleasing or the opposite. Students found that, of the paintings exhibited, those which interested them 'had more in them' and, to discover what this implied, a parallel was drawn between music and painting. In music we had heard of the four qualities of sound; loudness, duration, pitch and timbre, and in painting we have equally abstract elements of line, mass, tone, colour and texture. And just as in music the pattern, which is a matter of sound relationships, is produced by blending and balancing the sounds to give us rhythmic melody and harmony, so in painting we find other forms of balance, symmetry and rhythm.

The students were now asked to attempt some pattern making for themselves. To illustrate the more popular conception of pattern as the regular repetition of a unit, two groups did either a potato print or a free brush border. The third group attempted the decoration of a surface by a more complex arrangement of shapes, surfaces, colours, tones, etc. Before starting, the importance of balance and proportion was stressed. Although pattern depends upon similarities and differences it is not enough to concentrate on variety: the varying elements must be organized to give a result which is pleasurable satisfying.

This led to some discussion as to what

constitutes *good* form. To illustrate the point that appreciation of good proportion and balance is a feeling for rightness that is innate, but which needs to be cultivated, the students were asked to do some very simple exercises such as drawing what they considered to be a well proportioned capital 'A', and making the necessary additions to an arrangement of shapes to give balance and stability. Reference was here made to the classical 'golden section' and its relation to the law of natural growth. The theory that proportions which we feel are right are related to the forms of nature, because we ourselves are part of nature, was introduced and left for the students to think over.

WORDS

The students were asked to remember what had been said in both Movement and Music—that bodily rhythm of breath and pulse formed the basis of pattern in these media. Since speech depended on breath they would find also in words a pattern dependent on bodily rhythm. This pattern is observable in written words as writing is only a more permanent record of speech.

The students then considered the sense pattern in words and discovered in so doing that a defined meaning that produced a common response showed that content was inherent in all particular arrangements of words; on being asked to stand up no one would sit down or walk out of a room. It was decided that as words had such definite content and were symbols of generally clear significance and associations, it was going to be difficult to study pattern without content in words. Painting, music and movement could be more abstract than words.

In ballads the students found one of the most strongly patterned arrangements of words. The compulsion of the metrical form had caused ballad writers to 'fill in' with nonsense syllables when the sense failed to complete the pattern. While 'Hey nonny nonny' or 'Rifol rifol tol do diddle i do', for example, were chanted with strongly stressed rhythm the students were asked to make linear patterns suggested by the word form. These emerged as simple repetitive patterns.

After this each student was given a copy of 'Jabberwocky' and the group read the first verse aloud. It was noticeable that, after the first few feet, the verse was delivered by the students in

complete unity brought about by the form in which it was written. Despite the use of nonsense, words roused an emotional or pictorial response in most students. They decided that each nonsense word became associated with the nearest sounding sense word, thus 'slithy' became 'slimy'.

The groups came to the conclusion at the end of this first phase that it was not possible, even by using nonsense, to have pattern without content in words; that pattern is inherent in words and most easily observable in verse.

CONTENT IN THE ARTS (PHASE II)

MOVEMENT

On the second day we tried to experience content rather than pattern in movement. Three different types of movement and dance of primitive man were used: the miming of the movement of animals such as elephants, monkeys, snakes, etc.; dances expressing deep emotion such as joy in victory, despair over defeat, intense fear of natural phenomena or of the experience of pain, the emotion of love expressed in courtship dances, etc.; symbolic dances similar to those in which the women stimulated the growth of crops by shaking their long hair and waving branches while the men made upward movements expressive of strength and growth.

The students' demonstration was vigorous and noisy rather than graceful. They had little or no technique to bring to this experience and their spontaneity was not inhibited by the imposition of preconceived ideas about particular patterns or modes of expression. They invented dances expressing emotion which moved from a quiet and controlled beginning to a tremendous climax of exhaustion, and entered into the experience with imagination and wholehearted enthusiasm.

MUSIC

As before, the students were reminded that they had again called in the aid of music for their dancing. This time music had helped them not merely to make rhythmic movements and patterned forms, but to express emotions, to represent events, and to symbolise ideas through mime and gesture. In what way had music helped? It was shown that music could do very little to help in the second of these forms of expression, as it was rarely its function to represent concrete things, to imitate sounds, or to communicate

narrative. Its capacity for symbolised expression would be discussed in the third session. This session would be devoted to examining music's emotional content.

Extracts from the music of Bach and Beethoven were played to illustrate the musical expression of sadness, tragedy, contentment, and a happy playfulness. When the students' interest in music's expressive capacity had been stimulated, they were shown, from the works of Schubert, Chopin and Mendelssohn, how composers had given increasing attention to this quality of music, and proportionately less thought to its formal structure. Illustrations from the music of the French Impressionists showed the gradual disappearance of strong outlines, even of key patterns, and increased attention to 'feeling' and 'content'.

What could happen to an art when its expressive content outweighed other considerations was illustrated by extracts from some of the over-sentimentalized music of the nineteenth century. The point was emphasized by returning for contrast to a short item by Bach.

In conclusion reference was made to those composers who had retained classical ideals, dignifying music's expressive quality with a formal grace. This was illustrated by records.

This session prepared the way for the illustration of a parallel development in other arts.

WORDS

Although the groups had agreed that in words pattern was inseparable from content, all the examples previously studied had laid stress on pattern. The task was now to concentrate on verse and prose in which content was the more important. The students were asked to consider what was the result of this shift of emphasis—was it more or less artistic? Was it equally pleasing?

Two passages were studied, one a description of the candle flame from Faraday's *Chemical History of a Candle*, and one from Tennyson's *Morte D'Arthur*. Both used terms of jewels to describe a sword hilt or a candle flame. Which seemed to achieve its object the more successfully? Opinions varied, no group expressed a unanimous verdict in favour of either.

Next, part of 'The Wreck of the Hesperus', part of 'The Day Dream' and 'Requiescat' were read to the students. There was lively discussion on the merits of these as artistic expression, and

a new element was introduced into the assessment of a work of art—that of interpretation. Many students felt it was possible, particularly in words, music, and movement, to deny by inept performance a great deal of its intrinsic worth to the work being interpreted.

Readings of extracts from *The Bells*, *The Ancient Mariner*, *The Fiddler of Dooney*, *The Cabman Dances*, *The Rio Grande* and *The Triumph* were given as examples of how far it is possible to express content peculiar to one art form in terms of another. In this way musical sound, colour, movement and texture were expressed in words. Most students agreed that this translation to another medium was only partially successful since full appreciation depended on previous acquaintance with music, colour, dance and texture in order that the word symbols might convey a correct impression. The last activity undertaken by the group in this section of the course was to write, within a time-limit of ten minutes, a short verse in any simple metre using such content as a little boy and a hedgehog which disappeared while a house was being prepared for it, or a tramp and a pound note. The results

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varied in quality, but the students were unanimous that pattern and content, though present in their verse, were not sufficient to ensure satisfactory artistic expression. They felt that mastery of technique was a contributory factor, and yet even when pattern, content and a high degree of skill were present, there was still absent a quality necessary for the most perfect form of artistic expression.

PAINT

A selection of paintings was shown on the episcopes and the students asked for their opinions on their quality. From the answers it soon became apparent that most students were interested primarily in the subject matter. If this appealed to them, and the painting was technically competent, they said it was good, and on this basis of judgment Briton Riviere's *Fidelity* gained most votes because of the 'feeling' expressed. G. F. Watt's *Hope* and *My First Sermon* by Millais were approved for similar reasons.

Referring to what had been done during their second movement period, when the emphasis had been on expression to the stimulus of primitive rhythms the students were asked to consider whether *feeling* by itself was enough. It was obvious that what they had done then failed as an Art form because it was lacking in any of the sense of pattern which had been so clearly present in the folk dancing.

To draw the parallel in painting the group was shown a reproduction of Manet's *Olympia* held upside down so that the design and composition could be seen unrelated to the content, which was not then easily recognizable. The beauty of the colour and the satisfying disposition of the shapes were at once appreciated. But in spite of

these obvious qualities many students expressed a strong dislike of the subject portrayed and for this reason condemned the painting.

It was here necessary to point out that although we tend to attach a high value to a thing that we like we should distinguish between this and pronouncing it 'good'. It should be possible to make an objective assessment of a painting, irrespective of its personal appeal, which is often purely a matter of sentimental association.

We referred again to our previous experiments in pattern and re-emphasized the point that the aesthetic appeal of a painting depends solely upon the design.

Concerning content, although realism, even photographic naturalism, is commonly regarded as the only aesthetic standard, this is in fact only one of the ways by which the painter may choose to express himself. Just as in movement the students had tried to express an emotion, a symbolic and a realistic representation, so in the visual arts we find similar distinct groupings. A painting will be mainly realistic, imaginative, expressionistic or abstract in character according to whether the artist primarily responds to thought, emotional feeling, sense impressions or intuition. Paintings by Vermeer, Botticelli, Van Gogh and Henry Moore were shown to illustrate this point. In the works shown the relative importance of content and form varied. The intuitive artist, concerned almost exclusively with the juxtaposition of surfaces, shapes, tones, colours, is very akin to the musician. Neither is mainly concerned with subject matter. At the other extreme the realist with his overriding interest in content, often insisting that his picture should tell a story, is trying to do something which might perhaps be done better in words.

The students were left to consider whether there was a proper relative balance of form and content peculiar to painting and whether some arts were better suited for some kinds of expression than others.

PATTERN AND CONTENT (PHASE III)**MOVEMENT**

The group worked with improvised music on the place of pattern and content in Modern Educational Dance. Stress was laid upon the adequate use of space and the limitations of movement involving particular parts of the body, and the use of energy and time in a variety of

movements such as floating, pushing, pulling, gliding or dabbing. The place of technique was discussed and the principles underlying ballet and modern educational dance were contrasted. The interpretation of an idea in movement was undertaken by small groups and contrasted with the flow of movement of a skilled demonstrator. Students raised questions about the extent to which modern educational dance included imitative rather than individually creative movement.

WORDS

In this last group period the students were asked to listen to extracts in verse and prose in which the content was most perfectly expressed and in which there might be a factor not previously discussed. They were asked to apply critical judgments to the extracts.

The following extracts were read, not always in the same order :

Song of Jael..... Judges v, 24-27

Daffodils Wordsworth

Shall I compare thee to a summer's day...Shakespeare

Extract on imaginative reality from *A Room*

of *One's Own*.....Virginia Woolf

Pied BeautyG. M. Hopkins

Extracts from :

The Hollow Men ; Burnt Norton ; Little Gidding
T. S. Eliot

The students' reaction varied sharply, and, from the discussion which followed the readings, emerged the fact that art was appreciated in proportion to the variety and depth of one's own experience ; that inspiration (in one group termed creativeness) was necessary to art ; that great writers and artists in other media expressed content (sensory, emotional, intellectual, purposeful) without thought of pleasing or edifying others, but that the artist in words was more often sensible of the need and obligation to express himself through a form intelligible to a fairly wide audience.

MUSIC

To bring out the main theme which the course was developing, the students were asked to consider, at first in the visual arts, the essential differences between a realistic reproduction and a patterned symbol, and between a general truth and a specific example. In the discussion the trivial and embarrassing nature of the revelation of personal emotional experience was contrasted

with the universal interest in emotion itself. This led to the discussion that music, because of its freedom from mere representationalism, was especially fitted for the expression of emotion in a general or symbolized way. The use of dance for symbolized expression was recalled.

The significance of a formalized expression in music was illustrated. Short extracts from the works of Shostakovitch Prokofief, and Stravinsky were included, to illustrate ways in which the modern orchestra contributed to this formal expression.

At the request of a number of students, a few works in an ultra-modern idiom were played on the gramophone, including part of Haba's micro-tonal *Duo for Violins* and a movement from the *Octandre* of Varese. Amongst the questions which arose during the discussion of these works, the difference between the evolutionary and the revolutionary in art proved the most interesting.

These examples were then used to introduce the view that much modern music, painting and poetry, in reacting against the over-emotionalized works of art, had swung to the other extreme, and were exaggerating the formal or patterned

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DENT

quality of art. The students were left to consider the relative importance of form and content in the different arts, including architecture and drama.

PAINT AND CLAY

Now the more difficult problem was approached of expressing content through form. Practical work was again introduced, students interpreting in paint, clay or charcoal their reactions to certain stimuli.

Two short experiments preceded the execution of a piece of creative work.

The stimulus for the first experiment was provided by music. An amplifier from the Music Room was installed in the Art Room (also a telephone connection for communication purposes), and four short excerpts from works by Chopin, Debussy, Macdowell and Schubert were played. It had been discovered in the Music Section of the course that music always has pattern, but has less content than other forms of Art in the sense that it does not use visual images or recognizable symbols, though it can have content in the sense that it can convey a sensation, feeling or mood. Using therefore the pattern elements of line, mass, tone and texture and working in charcoal, students attempted to make a quick interpretation of the sense impression conveyed by each piece of music.

Words were taken as the second stimulus. Words had been found to convey much more content, and, as it seemed almost impossible to find quotations that expressed an idea without suggesting visual forms, the following phrases were composed by the drama lecturer :

- (1) 'And Hate, deep loathing all, but most of all, itself.'
- (2) 'Happiness, mirthfully gay, without desire, without corruption'.
- (3) 'Despair ; despair ; and yet again despair—empty of hope'.

After the reading of each of these phrases students attempted to make a statement in colour that would express their reactions to these ideas. It was interesting to note a similarity of interpretation, e.g., in a number of cases 'Hate' was interpreted in black and sultry reds as a hard, enclosed core, 'Happiness' in light, gay colours with out-going movements, and 'Despair' usually grey and, in several cases, as a maze turning in on itself.

After this a short discussion was held, and it was agreed that to express an idea in a purely realistic and representational manner was inadequate ; not only the subject matter, but the pattern elements of line, mass, tone, colour and texture should all be organized to contribute towards the feeling or idea expressed. Two examples were shown, (1) *The Agony in the Garden* by El Greco, where the feeling of mental and spiritual stress is conveyed through the use of conflicting lines, violently opposed tonal contrasts and vivid electric colouring ; (2) *Winter Sea*, by Paul Nash, in which, by an elimination of all unnecessary detail, the use of simple severe level lines and an economy of sombre colours, a feeling of coldness and austerity is conveyed.

Students were then asked to produce a piece of creative work either in paint or clay, using if they liked any visual forms that suggested themselves, and relating them in such a way that both the content and the pattern combined to express their idea. A record of the *Prelude in A* by Shostakovitch was played through and then repeated at frequent intervals while students worked. Music was deliberately chosen as a stimulus for this last piece of work rather than a verbal description passage, because although the students were at liberty to use known forms and symbols through which their ideas could be expressed, it was felt that these forms should be personal and self-selected.

Some very interesting work was done. In many cases there was a similarity of feeling with regard to the mood, whilst the forms used to express it varied. A number of the students felt that the music suggested a challenge, a gathering of forces, or a mood of aspiration, and to express these ideas such varying forms as a tall tower, mountains, a restless sea or a praying figure were used.

The work suggested that a genuine creative impulse had been experienced by the majority of the students, and it was not until this point had been reached that the question of technique was introduced. It was raised by the students themselves, who felt the need of it in order to express their ideas adequately. The point was then made that they had in fact reached the point where technique should begin. It was agreed that it should not be taught or learned as an end in itself, but that the self-imposed discipline of acquiring technique should be accepted as a means of perfecting creative expression.

GENERAL CONCLUSIONS

It is not possible to convey the sense of interested urgency which the students brought to the General Discussion. No one present could have doubted that a considerable stimulus had been given, though it was not easily possible to state in precise terms how it had come about. There were possibly human and personal elements in the experience to which weight must be given. It was so different from what had been expected; the sense of co-operation between the staff was real and strong, possibly because they had sufficient faith to determine their general direction and not to fix their ultimate goal; and the students had really been left free enough to feel that they had taken part in some self-revealing activity. Many of them had clearly been scared of the idea of using paint and clay, and felt diffident lest their efforts should be compared unfavourably with those of other students. But they found only an interest in their achievement and an attempt to understand its inner significance as a form of self-revelation. I recall in one group an ex-serviceman on his knees at a bench kneading and shaping his clay in an uncommonly unconscious absorption in his job, looking rather like a small child manipulating for the first time bricks of new shapes, sizes and colours. Whatever may or may not be right about the theories underlying this course or the particular method chosen for carrying them into practice, there can be no doubt that something significant had happened to most of the students.

In this emphasis on the need for freedom for the students, let us not fall into the common error of not recognizing the importance of the staff contribution. The less direct guidance is given, the more is it needful for the staff contribution in initial instruction, in casual comment, or in direct intervention to be a contribution of unmistakable quality. Where staff thinking is shoddy, student response is poor. The student responds to the total situation, in which the personal quality and attitude of the members of staff is no small element. In all organized educational work the impact of one mind and one personality on another is the most real factor in the total situation; the form and extent of intervention may change but the responsibility of the member of staff for influencing the educational environment is inescapable. So I should like to pay tribute to the members of the College staff who shared in

this experiment and whose names appear on the first page. I can do this freely because my own part was merely that of initial adviser, interested observer, and final recorder.

We cannot deal here with the variety of questions and comment posed at the General Discussion. But the fundamental question of the nature of creativeness arose naturally from the experience, together with the relation between technical competence and creative expression, and the criteria for discriminating between Art that is good and 'Art' that is bad. Those were the kinds of questions we had hoped to stimulate, and the experience provided had already pointed the way to tentative answers. Perhaps many students would echo the note of surprise in one final comment in a student's journal, 'The Arts course has really given me something to think about, and I really enjoyed it, too.'

(Continued from foot of page 81)

children have a learning task and the teacher is a co-worker in it. In order to fill this rôle adequately modern teachers use activity methods supplemented by formal lessons when needed. But a normal class differs from the second group also in that it consists of children, and it might seem that interpretations are out of place in this case. Yet I found that certain interpretations released tensions in class if they were given casually and showed sympathetic understanding. Thus I remembered telling a discouraged class who had taken refuge in their reputation for stupidity that I just did not believe in their stupidity but saw it for what it was, an excuse for making no effort. Since this perfectly genuine interpretation enhanced their self-respect at the same time as it revealed their laziness they suddenly became willing to make more effort. What might have seemed a miraculous change became understandable in the light of my group experience. Obviously the teacher has to learn much more about himself—an adult—than he can pass on in direct form to the children, but this experience gives him an insight that saves him from many mistaken judgments of children's behaviour in class.

[Reprinted, with kind permission, from *E.N.E.F. Bulletin*, March, 1951. Mrs. Herbert will be leading an interpretative group discussion, probably in French, at the *N.E.F. International Conference*, Chichester, July 31st to August 9th, 1951. For particulars, apply Secretary, *N.E.F.*, 1 Park Crescent, London, W.1.—Ed.]

Book Reviews

The Indiscretions of a Magistrate, Basil L. Q. Henriques. (Harrap 8/6).

This book is a mixture of many things. It is in part a personal record, well embellished by warm-hearted reminiscences and anecdotes. In part it serves to give the reader a clear and full account of the work and powers of a juvenile court. It is also a human treatise, telling of the bitter battle that existence is for many children whose life has to be spent among the grimy stone and concrete of a large city. In all this Mr. Henriques excels.

But the book also sets out to analyse causes and suggest remedies for delinquency. In this function its factual clarity breaks down into such an odd confusion that one is left with the unhappy feeling that Mr. Henriques is taking the opportunity of getting some pet prejudices off his chest. He does this with great gusto, but with little reference to fact.

Some of his remedies are unexceptionable. He advocates, for example, the formation of parent-teacher associations in every school of the country; he wants better remand observation centres which will save first-offenders

from contamination by those long versed in crime or sexual depravity; he reiterates the need for more opportunities for harmless adventure for the urban child. There is plenty of evidence to support these and other of Mr. Henriques' recommendations. But what are we to make of his statement concerning mixed clubs? 'Excellent as they may be for girls, I am certain that they are really bad for young adolescent boys under the age of sixteen.' Certain? Really bad? On what evidence please?

Of like kind is Mr. Henriques' extraordinary polemic against the type of school in which interest and co-operation replace force, fear and competition as the basis of incentive and discipline. Without giving facts or references of any substantial kind, Mr. Henriques declares such schools to be a contributory factor in the increase in delinquency. Actually, of course, there is scientific evidence to show that the facts are the opposite of what Mr. Henriques supposes them to be. A competitive school environment produces in at least the less able children a sense of personal inadequacy which may easily lead to compensation in anti-social behaviour. The same is

true of an authoritarian environment. It is not precepts but people and experiences that make children moral; not the drive of competition but the formative influence of good human relationships, and the satisfactions of personal and group achievement in the attainment of worth-while objectives. Unfortunately this book nowhere suggests that Mr. Henriques understands the sort of social milieu that must be provided by a school if it is to further a child's social education and develop his sense of responsibility. It thus fails to make the essential distinction between the go-as-you-please type of 'progressive' school and the genuinely progressive school community in which self-discipline, social discipline, and shared purpose have replaced stick-and-carrot individualism.

These confusions of thought are the more regrettable as the book as a whole is a human document which may well serve to start people off thinking along the right lines in this difficult business of reclaiming the anti-social child for responsible citizenship.

James Hemming

The Maze of Schools by Dickin Moore. (Bodley Head. 10/6).

It would perhaps be easier to review a book such as this if one did *not* know the progressive schools intimately, if the identity of the schools in which Mr. Moore has taught were not so very obvious under their thin disguise.

I wonder whether it would be possible to make a popular book about progressive schools if there were not things in such schools that attract the public by first shocking them? Swearing, smoking, nakedness: how often we have seen these things splashed across the headlines of popular newspapers, so that they become to the ignorant public the distinguishing characteristic of this group of schools! That public too easily ignores the fact that, well out of sight of teacher or parent, things happen between many day-school boys and girls, in their leisure time, less innocent than the things that make spicy reading in books about progressive schools.

This book is written in the form of a series of letters to a friend. This has the effect sometimes, of garrulity, but it makes it possible both to write in the pattern of a narrative and yet indulge in personal reflection. It wastes a good deal of space, however, on things that are irrelevant.

The writer passes from an advanced type of boys' public school to one of

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the most 'progressive' of the co-educational schools. As the blurb on the cover says, the book presents a charming picture of a man slightly out of his depth—debating the problems of education, of schools and of children. It is this state of affairs that gives the book both its quality and its defects. It raises all the problems that we are familiar with, makes one wonder about them once again, but does not go deep enough to point to any solution. Such reassurance as it gives, supports those who have tempered rebellious progressiveness with practical wisdom and a deepening understanding of the needs of children.

The author questions if it is good for a child to be able to tell a teacher to shut up or go to hell. I agree with his judgment that it is not good. An adult may rebel against the customs of society, fully conscious of what he is doing and willing to take the consequences. But do we know what is really happening to the unconscious elements in a child's personality when he breaks right through the ordinary pattern of relationships and uses words as instruments of assault? He may, by so doing, build up a load of guilt that will permanently isolate him from society in crankiness and individualism.

Although his attitude to them is cautious and wise, I fear that some of the things that Mr. Moore exposes may bulk too large in the minds of his more conventional readers. It should be emphasized that even when language is restricted to what sensitive people will tolerate, a fearless and trusting relationship between teacher and child is possible and wholly desirable.

The author throws up a host of ideas and problems and his book is an interesting exposition of the way one goes on ruminating from day to day without coming to any definite conclusions. Valuable ideas in child psychology appear from time to time. Judgments now and then are deep and thoughtful, at other times casual; in this respect they reflect the thought of any serious teacher, called upon as he is from day to day not only to make judgments upon the whole world of knowledge, but to make decisions affecting human personality, about which the best of us know only a little.

He finds the boys slacker than, and generally inferior to, the girls, but he does admit that a man tends to notice girls more and that they charm him. He thinks love affairs in co-educational schools interfere with work but seems to ignore the fact that the majority of boys and girls educated in single-sex day schools have love affairs, conducted in out-of-school hours, which

claim a great deal of interest and energy and interfere with work no less seriously. He mentions the parents—how well one knows them!—who send their children when young to a progressive school because they want them to be happy and well-balanced, then become anxious when the children reach sixteen because they are not as thoroughly crammed as are their counterparts in grammar schools, and finally take them away in a frantic attempt to have the best of both worlds. Mr. Moore is critical but kind to headmasters. He greatly appreciates the Head who is down-right and honest, who does not sell education as other men sell vacuum cleaners. But he does not approve of the very confident, certain, rational Head. In this I think he is right. We know too little of the results of what we do. We can rarely be certain that the good qualities appearing in children arise from what we do for them. In the picture of the mature pupil we can hardly know which brush strokes are our own. We must not be too ready when children pass through bad phases to say that they turn out all right in the end, for we have inadequate criteria by which in the end to judge, and often too little information.

Such questions as these, raised by the author, leave me with the feeling that the quality of a school's life must be judged in the present and by the present. A school must be a place where crises come and go, where unhappiness can come to the surface to be seen and dealt with, where evil repressions can be released, where pain of the spirit can be known and faced as part of education. It cannot—and must not—be a place where everything goes smoothly, or to which a child will look back as to a golden age. But there must be something sweetening the whole experience, something that makes it—no matter whether it is on balance happy or painful—significant and satisfying and real, something that helps everyone to accept it as in the nature of human life. Keeping one's finger on the pulse of a school requires a religious perception, the ability to relate everything to a very sensitive central point in consciousness. Perhaps this is the final judgment that I am brought to by this book, although it does not state it, that the progressive schools cannot avoid their crude mistakes, nor make the best use of the energy that they undoubtedly set free in children, until they have re-examined the religious aspect of education. There is always a danger that anything progressive may be a mere reaction against the conventional and therefore equally determined—though negatively—by forces in society. If it is to be more than this

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it must claim that it knows more of truth. It must be able to say that it is not determined by mere reaction nor by the needs of certain adults to obtain conditions for emotional release, but that it springs from conviction about human personality that are deeply rooted in experience. Where in ourselves can we find the ultimate standard of judgment as to our own integrity and objectivity in what we seek to do educationally? The self-discipline and heart-searching necessary to discover this is a religious exercise. Mr. Moore gives an excellent example of the bad sort of progressive thinking in the instance of a staff meeting in which it is said that what the progressive school stands for is 'freedom of emotional expression'. A little reflection should show that this may mean anything from the sublimest form of tenderness and friendship to the most disgusting emotional diarrhoea. Freedom comes through self-discipline generously undertaken and it is the religious element in us that accepts the task and guides the process.

Kenneth C. Barnes

Theatregoing, Harold Downs.
(Thrift Books 1/- ; Watts).

The publishers of *Thrift Books* are to be congratulated on putting out a shilling educational series in these days. In *Theatregoing* the author addresses that dwindling percentage of the population which persists in frequenting the theatre, in an attempt to show the more idle what he should

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look for and the more enlightened how to raise his standard of appreciation.

Mr. Downs takes his text from Shaw, and indeed, a very great deal of his material. He gives a brief historical survey of the Drama—Greek, Roman and British, a chapter on the greatest plays of all time, a detailed account of the most notable modern English dramatists and the plays now available to the English stage, and finally relates these plays to the five heads of Shaw's somewhat elaborate *dicta* . . . '(that the theatre should) take itself seriously as a factory of thought, a prompter of conscience, an elucidator of social conduct, an armoury against despair and dullness, and a temple of the Ascent of Man.'

But, while the whole theme of the book appears to be the importance of the theatre or the drama at its most noble, the author seems afraid to invoke the noblest of all examples. He considers that the ordinary playgoer will not be interested in the scholarly appreciation of the great Greek dramatists. They are mentioned, given due credit, and the layout of the actual Greek theatre explained—but 'Conventionalism', he says, 'was their characteristic.' And so to dismiss those noble abstractions is to lose a glimpse of greatness the world may never see again. 'These myths are finally built into two dramatic cycles—the one, alas, incomplete—which are among the supreme achievements of the human mind, dramas about the birth and growth of reason, order, and mercy, among gods and men alike.' (H. D. F. Kitto—*The Greeks—Pelican Books*). Surely the most ordinary

playgoer could appreciate something of this?

Much use is made, naturally, of Shaw, both as dramatist, critic and prophet (or preacher). T. S. Eliot is, regrettably, passed over with a bare reference, Galsworthy dealt with at some length. Several good writers on the theatre are quoted and a useful bibliography is appended.

Mr. Downs claims that he intends to be provocative. His style is certainly irritating. It suffers partly from the condensation of so vast and detailed a subject into 110 pages, but it also suffers from a most peculiar addiction, noticeable even in the title, to the present participle. The result one can only describe as muffling! A shilling book is nowadays so rare, so precious, that the extreme perfection of clarity should be its right.

John Waterman

Other 'Thrifty' books are:

Evolution in Outline. T. Neville George.

What's All This About Genetics? Rona Hurst.

The Ladder of Life. A. Gowans Whyte.

Child Art, No. 12. 1950 issue of "USHA," Bombay.

This special issue of the monthly magazine of the New Era School in Bombay confirms the universal spreading of the ideas of the pioneers of Child Art. M. T. Vyas, the Principal of the school, acknowledges in his foreword the inspiration he received from his studies of experimental educational work in Europe, especially in England. 'Every child is an artist', he says and this view—first expressed by Cizek some fifty years ago—is voiced again and again in this interesting publication.

Madhubhai Patel, the art teacher at the New Era School, stresses how much the teacher can and should inspire, and he, like Cizek, makes use of music. ('With Tanboora—a musical instrument—I hummed the melody to create an atmosphere and evoke their particular emotions'). Like others Patel finds no difference in the work of very young boys and girls. Later they differ. The older girls often have more sense of colour, and choose different subjects. G. Venkatachalam reminds us that ancient Hindu seers already knew that the child's personality is different from the adult's, and he defends the young child's right to be guided rather than instructed. Rabindranath Tagore, who had visited the Cizek school in Vienna, is quoted as a defender of the child against the adult.

Thirty-four reproductions (many in colour) of the work of pupils from four to fifteen increase the value of the publication. The older the children grow, the more their pictures seem to be influenced by adult art, and in a few cases imitation is frankly admitted. Fortunately, however, the pictures are often not merely copies, but are somehow only conditioned by ancient Indian Art.

Gray Hellier emphasizes that children of every nationality express themselves in drawings that are much alike—a consoling thought in our time. But in addition to the 'eternal child in all nations and ages' there are some national characteristics in older children's works, quite naturally. However, the common factors are by far the stronger.

This book is a valuable contribution to the growing literature on Child Art.
W. Viola

Making and Using Film Strips

T. L. Green. (Sir Isaac Pitman & Sons. 7/6).

Teachers who use film strips may do one or more of three things. They may use the commercial product, have their own material made into strips commercially, and make their own strips from their own material. All would benefit from this book, but particularly those who are fortunate enough to have the time and facilities to make their own strips.

The book embodies the results of long and intensive experiment and research in the subject. There is a wealth of illustration by photograph and line. Detailed specifications for material are given and every possible aspect carefully considered and covered in a very practical way. The book is well-produced on good quality paper and is likely to become a standard handbook in its particular field.

H. Armstrong

Children in Trouble. F. T. Giles. 61 pp. 1950. (Oxford University Press. 1/9).

Mr. Giles, who has previously written another book on Juvenile Courts and the useful Pelican book on the Magistrates' Courts, has published this Pamphlet in the 'Social Science Studies' of the Oxford University Press.

It presents with impressive simplicity a very practical survey of the treatment of delinquent children, given as if dealing with some actual cases. The narrative form of Mr. Giles's little book makes it an easy intro-

duction for discussion groups, and it is not only suitable for use in school libraries but also for parents who are faced with behaviour problems in their own children.

K. F. Hirsch

PRESENT QUESTION CONFERENCE
August 4th to 11th, 1951, at Lady Margaret Hall, Oxford

The Present Question Conference was founded in 1945. It is an independent, non-profit-making association. It follows no party-political or sectarian line, and includes men and women from all walks of life—professional and business people, industrialists, trade unionists, and artists.

Purpose. The Present Question Conference re-affirms the importance of human values and relationships amidst the impersonal and materialistic conditions of life to-day. The Present Question Conference is based on the belief that man and women are more important than machines; and that efficiency and output are directly related to the satisfaction of fundamental human needs.

Through the study of some of the outstanding problems of our day, as seen by persons in many different walks of life, it seeks to help the individual to attain a fuller realization

of his own personality and his place in society, and a better understanding of the outlook and conditions of other people. In face of the tendency to see human beings as mere functional operatives, the Present Question Conference emphasizes human personality; instead of the disjointed life, with its sharp distinction between work and leisure, duty and pleasure, the Conference emphasizes the unity and the wholeness of life, as opposed to the narrow sectional view which so often results from the very complexity of the modern world.

In short, the Present Question Conference seeks to help men and women to find the keys to a life which, in factory or office, studio or home, is more and more satisfying to themselves and worth-while for others.

Activities. The Present Question Conference works along three lines: (1) small groups which meet regularly throughout the year; (2) an annual conference; and (3) the publication, *Question*.

The subject of this year's Conference is: 'Freedom and Responsibility', and among the main speakers, dealing with different angles of the theme, from their various points of view will be: Dr. J. Bronowsky, applied science; E. A. Carthy, T.U.C., the Industrial Worker; Sir John D. Cockcroft, pure science; R. H. S. Crossman, M.P.,

the Politician; Prof. H. D. Lewis, the Philosopher; Dr. J. H. Oldham, Freedom and the Person; Wells Coates, the Architect; J. F. Wolfenden, the Educator; The Earl of Verulam, the Industrial Manager.

Anyone of either sex, regardless of his or her position or views, will be welcome at the Conference, and all intending to attend are asked to register as early as possible with the Secretary, Present Question Conference 37 Middleway, London, N.W.11.

INTERNATIONAL MONTESSORI CONGRESS IN LONDON

Friday Evening, May 11th, to Sunday Evening, May 20th, 1951

It is proposed to hold the tenth International Montessori Congress in London during next Whitsun week-end and the following week.

Dr. Montessori has consented to preside and will give several lectures.

The full programme, with detailed dates and times, is in preparation; meanwhile provisional enrolments can be accepted.

All correspondence should be addressed to: The Congress Organiser, Montessori Society, 14 Gordon Square, London, W.C.1. Telephone: Acorn 3144 (9-4 weekdays).

Directory of Schools

BADMINTON SCHOOL

Westbury-on-Trym

:: BRISTOL. ::

Junior School 6 to 11 years
 Senior School 12 to 19 years

The School is situated in large grounds and within easy reach of Bristol, so the older girls are able to enjoy many of the advantages provided by a University City. A high standard of scholarship is maintained and at the same time an interest in creative work is developed by the practical and theoretical study of Art and Music. There are weekly discussions on World Affairs and more intensive work on Social and International problems is done by means of voluntary Study Circles.

Apply to The Secretary.

BRYANSTON SCHOOL

BLANDFORD, DORSET

Chairman of the Governors:

ERIC FARMER, M.A.

Headmaster: T. F. COADE, M.A.

(Christ Church, Oxford)

A Public School, founded in 1928, which attempts to unite progressive education with what is best in the old Public School tradition.

FIVE SCHOLARSHIPS (£100—£40),

a MUSIC SCHOLARSHIP (£50),

an ART SCHOLARSHIP (£40),

and to boys of good character and all-round ability SOME BURSARIES (£60—£20) will be offered at the end of May, 1951. These awards are tenable for four years.

Full information may be obtained by writing direct to the Headmaster.

Directory of Schools—continued

KILQUHANITY HOUSE

CASTLE DOUGLAS

SCOTLAND

FOR BOYS AND GIRLS 3-18 YEARS

Established in 1940, Kilquhanity House frankly owes its inception to the work of A. S. Neill, who now considers it in the direct line of his own school and that of Homer Lane. It does not, however, cater for problem children. In practice there is an attempt to combine the traditional thoroughness of Scottish education with self-government for the pupils. Activity methods are used throughout, and the teaching staff is qualified to the standards demanded by the Scottish Education Department, which inspects the school. There is ample opportunity for practice in all the creative arts. A small mixed farm is a fundamental part—as distinct from an adjunct—of the school. The diet is on food reform lines, though children do not require to be vegetarian.

Fees : £150-£180 PER ANNUM

Headmaster : J. M. AITKENHEAD, M.A. (Hons.), Ed.B.

DARTINGTON HALL

TOTNES

DEVON

Headmaster : W. B. CURRY, M.A., B.Sc.

A co-educational boarding school for boys and girls from 2-18 in the centre of a 2,000 acre estate engaged in the scientific development of rural industries. The school gives to Arts and Crafts, Dance, Drama and Music the special attention customary in progressive schools, and combines a modern outlook which is non-sectarian and international with a free and informal atmosphere. It aims to establish the high intellectual and academic standards of the best traditional schools.

Fees : £200-£240 per annum.

A limited number of scholarships are available, and further information about these may be obtained from the Headmaster.

BEDALES SCHOOL

PETERSFIELD HANTS (Founded 1893)

A Co-educational Boarding School for boys and girls from 11½-18. Separate Junior School for those from 5-11. Inspected by the Ministry of Education. Country estate of 150 acres. Home Farm. Education is on modern lines and aims at securing the fullest individual development in, and through, the community.

Headmaster : H. B. JACKS, M.A. (Oxon.)

Wychwood School, Oxford

RECOGNIZED BY MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

Maximum of 80 girls (boarding and day pupils) aged 10-18. Small classes, large graduate staff. Education in widest sense under unusually happy and free conditions. Exceptional health record. Elder girls can work for universities, can specialize in Music, or take year's training at Wychlea (Domestic Science House). Playing fields, bathing pool.

Principals : Miss MARGARET LEE, M.A. (Oxon.)
Late University Tutor in English.
Miss E. M. SNODGRASS, M.A. (Oxon.)

FRENSHAM HEIGHTS FARNHAM, SURREY.

Headmaster : KENNETH KEAST, M.A.

Frensham Heights is a co-educational school containing at present 160 boarders and 40 day pupils equally divided as to sex and equally distributed in age from 8 to 18.

The school stands in a high position in 170 acres of ground. There is a separate Junior School for children from 8 to 11.

Fees : £210 per annum inclusive.

About three scholarships are offered annually.

For particulars apply Headmaster.

WYCOMBE COURT

LANE END - Nr. High Wycombe

Boarding School for girls (8-18). Estate of 60 acres in the Chiltern Hills. Sound academic work, with consideration for individual needs. Large staff of graduates. Vegetarian and ordinary diet. Open-air swimming pool.

Principals : MISS M. E. BOYLE, B.A.
MISS H. J. ROBINSON, N.F.U.

PENDRAGON HALL

59 Bath Road, Reading, Berks.

A co-educational boarding and day school for children between 5 and 14 years of age. Original curriculum designed to foster individual growth and social responsibility.

Also TRAINING SCHOOL FOR MARGARET MORRIS MOVEMENT (Southern Centre)

The new Theatre is being built and there are vacancies for students (aged 14 or over) who wish to make a career of Margaret Morris Movement in its teaching, medical or stage aspects. Dennis March, B.A. Sylvia March, L.R.A.M. Claire Cassidy, M.M.M.

THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

THE RÔLE OF THE ADVISER IN SCHOOL

G. W. Humphrey, St. Christopher School, Letchworth

My theme is simply the important part the adviser can play in education in the modern world. This seems to me particularly so at a time of increasingly rapid change when no school can present to its children a stable tradition that they can depend on and that they can be convinced is necessarily true. *The Loom of Youth* was written long enough ago but gave a hint that a stable tradition was already failing in 1916.

The inconclusive articles and conferences on the effect of the cinema and of Dick Barton—and presumably there will soon be discussion among educationists about the effect of television—are again an indication of our confusion concerning standards. Many parents confess themselves unable to give their children advice on sexual morality with any confidence. Can you say that courage and truth and human pity are absolutes?—their claims often conflict. The increasingly busy parent in this changing world is not sure of his own standards; he finds they are getting mixed up with politics; he cannot present them to his child with that confidence that will win respect.

Of course children have always questioned the standards that adults put before them, and it was a sign of the good parent that his decisions could be questioned openly and ruthlessly; in a stable world the well brought up child fearlessly separates the true from the fake, respects honesty and courage and makes his choice. Now he finds himself too often among adults who are over-emphatic, or under-confident; and finding so much fear on so many subjects he too loses confidence, has difficulty in building up his own personal standards, and becomes thereby a lesser human being. W. B. Yeats, describing the new spirit that is coming to birth in our age, said:

‘The best lack all conviction, while the worst
Are filled with a passionate intensity.’

Is this a new phenomenon or has it seemed the same to each generation? If the latter, then the

system I am describing is important for all time and not peculiarly so now.

Adviser and Company

I am describing the adviser system as I think it applies to the secondary school age, and particularly the Secondary Grammar School. These short notes are entirely based on experience of the system in action in three different schools. In one case the group attached to an adviser was a definite academic group and hence all of about the same age. This has its advantages, particularly when the members of the group are preparing for the same exam.

It seems to me self-evident that the oldest children should be in the care of the headmaster, which has been traditional since Dr. Arnold decided that his prefects were the civilized cream holding down a mass of barbarians. But for the 11 to 15 group a vertical division is more useful with not more than twelve children attached to each adviser. By this arrangement three or four children enter a ‘company’ or ‘Family’ each year.

When an adviser first takes on a ‘company’ he is making a new approach to that group of children, and they have formerly experienced him only as a teacher. While they are in his company they will be influenced by his ideas, however much he wishes to free them to develop their own approach to their personal business and to general school business. They can the more confidently accept this influence because they are a group together. The children who have been in the company for two or three years will probably have more immediate influence than the adviser on the newcomers of each year. Thus the running of a company may seem uphill work for the first two or three years, and then suddenly become much easier; and the older members will recognize and be pleased to accept the responsibility of the effect they have on the newcomers.

The adviser may meet his company for a

definite short period each day, or for a longer period of perhaps thirty minutes two or three times a week, or some intermediate system may be arranged better fitting the school time-table. He will probably teach most of them, and he will meet them out of class as he is going about his business. It is the first duty of an adviser, as it is a main duty of a parent, to have time to listen when a child is explaining some difficulty that is hindering him or some new experience, pleasure or achievement; one minute is sufficient. With most children this will happen no more than once in a term and that one occasion is very important. There will probably be a member of your company who lies in wait for you every day, and tries to engage you in long conversation; you can do a great deal to help that child, not necessarily by going on listening to a long and apparently trivial rigmarole each day, but certainly by one minute of friendliness.

Difficulties in the Classroom

There is a tendency in much modern writing on education to stress the fact that it is a waste for a child to be sitting in a classroom hating the subject that is being taught. I find that so many children working in the normal grammar school dislike more subjects than they like. The children work because it is the tradition in the school, or perhaps because of pressure from parents or fear of the headmaster. Examination results can be obtained that way, but most of these children leave school determined to avoid thereafter everything that reminds them of their school education, even such subjects as Geography, History, Economics and Science, which provide an essential basis for an intelligent concern about the world as it now affects them. Some may be won back through the influence of the many excellent wireless programmes and series of articles in the more responsible newspapers; but most base their day by day judgments on irrational bias, the more violently expressed when it is the less firmly based. These are citizens of a democracy which is still carefully watched by the majority of educated people throughout the world, whether with curses or praise.

It is of fundamental importance that the intelligent children selected for the secondary grammar schools should appreciate the matter that is presented to them. But here is a random selection of difficulties. It is Utopian to expect

all our teachers to be able to make all their lessons interesting, and bad education to let a child grow up supposing he need never face difficulties and make an effort to surmount them. Time-table difficulties are created if a child drops a subject for a time, and we have no guarantee that he will come back to it reconciled. Examinations play so great a part in choosing and entering a suitable career, that few parents can with any confidence permit their intelligent children to drop the unliked subject. Yet the child who is attending classes he does not understand and who thoroughly dislikes a subject may be weakening his ability to learn as his failures lead to a steady drop in confidence.

This is a situation where the adviser is particularly useful.

- (1) The child becomes more reconciled to the subject if he can state his difficulties to his own adviser; and in almost every case, if the problem is tackled as soon as it is recognized, the child will be prepared to try again.
- (2) Adviser and subject staff together can best decide if a child is in the wrong academic group.
- (3) The adviser can decide if it is necessary for a child to remain in the same group but with less work set to him (this might apply particularly to the intelligent child with acute writing difficulty) or whether he should be tackling extra simple work to make up deficiencies in foundations.
- (4) The adviser can decide this because, having no more than a dozen children in his care, he knows when the pressure of work is becoming too great. I believe teachers do not sufficiently allow for the depressing effects too much work has on adolescents; this pressure destroys the 'enthusiasms' that are aroused by good teaching, and that cannot be followed out because of anxiety about time, and leads to excessive escape to trivial films and dances. Girls in particular are affected by this, especially when taught in mixed schools and expected to cover the same maximum course as the boys. Their conscientiousness compels them to make an extra effort for the sake of neatness or completeness; a virtue that must not be damaged. The good adviser will know when this is happening, and must adjust the child's work or attitude.
- (5) An adviser becomes acquainted with the

parents of his dozen children, especially if the school possesses an efficient Parent's Circle. Unrecognized conflicts between home attitude and school often hinder a child's progress.

Homework

I believe the adviser is particularly fitted to help when the child is finding difficulty in the classroom. He should also be told when homework is not done or done badly. The subject teacher should explain to the adviser exactly what is required; there may be some initial disagreement on the remedy, but they must agree on a policy which the adviser then explains to the child; and I find that in nearly every case the child who has been weak is grateful to his adviser for being firm. If the adviser is to help his children to face their bad work he must also make it his business to praise their good work. Often a child in your company will show you the work he is proud of; you must examine it carefully; it will help you to assess his capabilities, and if you do not feel proud too you are not suited to educate children. Younger children in boarding schools like to show their good work, and need that praise from a person who can to a slight degree stand in the place of a parent.

Boarding Schools

Boarding schools form only a small part of the educational system of the country, and I would devote a very short paragraph to the adviser's work in them. A community of children tends to overemphasize toughness and independence, and every child passes through sensitive periods when he needs a different atmosphere. Any observant school matron will agree with this; sometimes a child will produce genuine symptoms for the sake of a few days of more personal treatment. And there are occasions when the healthy child finds a need to step away from the group of his contemporaries; when he is in doubt whether their simple standards are satisfactory, and wishes to test them against the experience of the adult. He may do the testing by attacking the adult point of view—this is the method of verification he has learnt in the child community—but this does not mean he has already made up his mind and will not be influenced by an honest reply. Indeed his very violence is often a measure of his uncertainty.

H. Lyn Harris when describing his school

THE TEACHER: IN SCHOOL AND OUT (1851—1951)

MAY 8—SEPT. 29

COLLEGE OF PRECEPTORS
2 BLOOMSBURY SQUARE, W.C.1

A FESTIVAL EXHIBITION

community of St. Christopher at Letchworth speaks of the adult as guide, philosopher and friend, and this has seemed to me increasingly important during the years I have been there. The school has certainly been most active and happy when staff and children have been able to live together freely; and when the children have been able to show that sufficient sense of personal responsibility that saves the adults from feeling in any way spies or policemen. Contrast with this the characteristic found most frequently in delinquent children, recalled in an article in *The Observer*, February 18, 'an apparent indifference to the good opinion of their elders'. These children cannot grow into normal members of any society without specialized help.

Everyday experience

The adviser requires no special knowledge or training, but he does need patience and enthusiasm. Where he is 'guide and philosopher' he can always find a significant and acceptable way to explain to a child whose behaviour is unwise or weak; he may need to provide temporary strengthening of the feeble backbone, and the

child accepts this strengthening if it is presented in friendliness. I have never known a child propose to his adviser that he be allowed to drift ; he quickly comes to respect this adult's judgment and to accept his standards ; a relationship develops in which vitality can accept a lead from experience, a relationship which is injured only by a sudden and apparently unreasonable change in the adviser's attitude. It is particularly important to avoid hasty criticism of the young adolescents in one's company ; their new restlessness and doubts can seem an unexpected drop in formerly steady standards ; they are especially in need of their adviser whose standards remain steady.

A company is a group of children who are accustomed to meeting together with their adviser regularly for discussion and sometimes for other social activities ; they may like to read a short play together, or engage another company in a friendly quiz, or they may one day in the summer take a picnic out together. All the child's misdeeds that are a serious nuisance in the school, or contrary to what rules there may be, should be reported to his company. It is here among his friends that he can explain himself and accept the punishment if any seems necessary. I know at first hand the system of courts run by children, but believe an offender accepts and profits more from the decision made during discussion in his own company.

In schools where the children stay to lunch the company should sit together at table ; if washing up is done by the children themselves, the basis of organization should be the company. Company meetings should occur in a room of convenient size ; it is a help to company solidarity if they can help in painting and decorating their room when this is necessary. In mixed schools when adolescent tension is causing the boys to adopt an aggressive attitude to girls of their own age group the company unit can help, as it will be the tacit tradition that the members show good manners in mutual relations. Good results are achieved by the adviser's constancy, good humour, and his never being flustered. General good manners can no doubt be enforced by severe reprimand and public ridicule and can become a habit, but they are learnt more gracefully in the stable atmosphere of a sincere home with school and adviser also co-operating. Teachers can show tact in reprimanding a child and courtesy

in answering a question, but this is made difficult by the demands of a large class and especially by any scramble from one class to another. The best natural good manners I have seen were in a school that had ten- or fifteen-minute intervals between work periods ; this was not a main cause but is an example of the civilized 'sense of values' in that school. If the school has an elected council composed of staff and children to help the headmaster in some of the simpler points of organization, each company should be allowed to send a member. This representative can carry to the council his company's views on the agenda, and can explain to his company the decisions that have been made.

Subadviser and choice of company

We find it invaluable in running this system that one senior child be attached to each of the twelve- to fifteen-year-old companies. He can share the organization of the company's activities, will take charge if the adviser is away, and his presence enables the adviser at any time to discuss a difficulty with a single individual. This sub-adviser may have a great influence in making his company aware of the increasing responsibility that should be accepted by seniors.

Children should feel free to change from one company to another if they wish (Margaret Mead found this happening among *families* in Samoa) but frequent changes endanger the stability that makes a company a secure base. A possible method is that all new children should be put together in one company for a term, and then express their preferences for permanent companies ; it would be equally effective that advisers should put in their requests for these children whom they have now met in the classroom. A disadvantage of this method is that a good company is a great help to a new child. Experience teaches that it is unwise to try to acquire only good children ; a company without problems falls out of the main stream and stagnates in indifference.

You will probably think this relationship of adviser to company that I have been describing involves an unnecessary amount of talk, and that the scallywag will talk indefinitely if he thinks this will get him out of a scrape. I find that the normal boy generally has too much self-respect to tell the same tale over twice to an adviser who knows him and his failings.

Growth of responsibility

A schoolmaster of many years experience seems to have heard all the tales so often that he believes them to be as meaningless to the schoolboy as they have become to him. I sympathise when he wishes to cut the Gordian Knot rather than to go on unravelling, but I believe the unsympathetic approach and the automatic system that attempts to fit all cases is as useless as the old-fashioned cane once considered so effective a short cut to 'good' discipline. The growing child can feel a growing sense of personal responsibility, and this is best encouraged and shielded by the adviser who knows him. It is fatal to try to use the same automatic system of rewards and punishments with 12-, 14- and 16-year-olds, and ideally the only complete solution is the well informed adviser. I am convinced by many years' experience that learning in Mathematics can be easy and pleasant when the rule is co-operation between teacher and child, but in this subject threats and impatience raise irrational fears making children believe they cannot understand the work; parents commonly confess to their children that they too could not understand Mathematics at school.

The adviser's assessment of the degree of responsibility each member of his company can accept works smoothly if all members of the staff believe in and support the system. Regular staff meetings are necessary in which difficult cases are

brought up, and it is important that discussions on differences of policy should be confined to the staffroom and decisions made there. Though children are accustomed to different standards with different teachers, an adviser will not get a very encouraging response from a boy who is habitually treated as totally irresponsible in the classroom. However, even with these difficulties, the adviser who persists will see results in raising the children's self-respect and sense of personal responsibility, and we have accounts of inspired teachers who have had the courage to do this in 'foreign' surroundings with great success.

The headmaster must make it quite clear where he wishes the adviser to take charge; it may be in keeping contact with the parents, deciding what courses the child should be following, settling difficulties that have occurred in the classroom, dealing with work not done or done badly; with the understanding that when the adviser feels he is failing he must report the situation immediately to his headmaster. The adviser will achieve his own technique through experience, but in his first year it is essential that the head should unobtrusively observe his methods and when they seem unwise take him aside for friendly advice. In many ways the head is in the same position with his staff as the adviser is with his company; in both these relations direction, friendliness, tact and enthusiasm are required.

THE FIRST TEACHING YEAR

J. D. Browne, M.A., Principal, Coventry Training College for Women

THE following is a short report on an enquiry conducted by members of the English New Education Fellowship into the first year out of College of newly trained teachers. The material was collected for the year 1948-49 by a group of eleven tutors from different Colleges and covered 165 students.

Of the nine Colleges that took part, seven were permanent two-year Colleges, one a three-year College and two were Emergency Training Colleges. The questionnaires and letters returned were all from women teachers although one batch came from a mixed College. Several men's Colleges were asked to take part but, for one reason or another, dropped out. It was hoped that a larger number of Colleges would co-operate but owing to the closing down of some Emergency Training Colleges, changes of staff and pressure of

work, this did not prove possible. It is obvious that no statistical validity can be attached to a small enquiry such as this, but it may well serve the purpose of pointing the way to further work.

The method used was to get each tutor who took part to send the students concerned the following questionnaire. In addition, he or she undertook to keep in touch with them by correspondence. The students were chosen so as to cover a wide range of teaching ability.

The object of the questionnaire was to find out certain facts about the placing of students, and it was hoped that the letters would give a more human picture of the young teacher at work. Even if coloured by feeling, the letters are relevant to the enquiry, for the young teacher is most affected by what she feels about her school.

They should not be regarded as a factual account of prevailing conditions.

QUESTIONNAIRE

N.B.—Answer by crossing out those that are inappropriate.

1. (a) Name and address
(b) Type of training—one-year emergency, one-year post graduate, two-year, three-year
(c) State whether living at home, in 'digs' or in a flat
2. Name and address of School
3. (a) Date of appointment
(b) Number of times absent through illness so far
4. Type of school, nursery, infant, junior, secondary
5. (a) Name of Local Education Authority. If independent school, say so
(b) State if area in which the school is situated is rural, industrial, or suburban
6. (a) Number of children in class
(b) Sex, age range, and stream (if any), or specially backward class
7. What proportion of your time do you spend in class teaching and in specialist teaching?
- *8. (a) Has your class been previously in the hands of an experienced teacher, or a probationer?
(b) Has it recently had many changes of class teachers, or not?
9. (a) Are you teaching the age range and/or the subjects which you have been trained to teach?
(b) If the answer is no, have classes been provided for further training?
10. What degree of choice had you in selection of :
(a) the area in which you are teaching?
(b) the school in which you are teaching?
11. Have you been visited by an L.E.A. inspector or an H.M.I.?

* Question 8 cannot be answered by those in charge of reception classes.

THE following points emerge from a study of the questionnaires. All these students were appointed to posts either during or immediately after their training. More than 66 per cent. of them lived at home, 24 per cent. in 'digs', the remainder in flats. Only 11 had to be absent for more than a week during the year and only 3 for any considerable period. The size of classes ranged from 14 in a rural school, to 17 in a nursery class, and 52 in a primary school in an industrial area. 38 per cent. had classes of 40 or over, but this percentage rose to 45 per cent. in the industrial areas. Some could not answer the question as to whether their classes had had many changes of class teacher before their appointment; because they were teaching reception classes either in the Infant or Secondary school; but 20 per cent. said that there had been considerable changes in the past year. About 15 per cent. were not teaching the age range for which

they were trained. Very few were attending anything in the nature of regular classes to remedy this matter, but some special observation visits and short courses had been arranged. Question 10 about the choice of area and school was perhaps misunderstood, for it was nearly always answered in the negative. It appeared from the correspondence, however, that the new entrants very often chose the County or County Borough but very rarely had any choice of area within it, or of the schools to which they were allotted. In most areas, however, an attempt had been made to place the young teacher somewhere near her home. Many of the answers failed to distinguish between an H.M.I. and an L.E.A. Inspector, and some replied that they had been visited but not inspected. About 75 per cent. had been visited by one or the other before the end of the year and as some forms were sent in before the end of the third term it can be assumed that most were visited, however briefly.

The letters certainly enlivened the dry bones of the questionnaire although it is difficult to judge how much weight should be given to some of the problems encountered. Where two or more letters exist from one teacher there is a tendency for situations that at first seem unbearable to improve, or find a remedy. On the whole the picture is a very heartening one, of young people modestly and earnestly tackling a big job. The letters show a most sincere belief in, and desire to put into practice, more active methods of teaching. Even allowing for the fact that they were all written to training college lecturers they make it clear that training has left a very vivid impression on these girls. There is many a heartening description of care and thought in teaching reading and number in a less formal way, of going out into the surrounding district for nature- or social-study, of a freer approach to physical education, and of great variety and enterprise in Art and Craft. Above all, most of these young teachers regard the members of the class as individuals for whose needs methods require constant adaption.

Most of the new entrants to the profession are enjoying their job; 'terms fly past'; it does not seem possible that I have now been teaching for a year. I have certainly enjoyed my first year of teaching. I have learnt a great deal and have made many mistakes. I do realize how fortunate I am to be in such a pleasant school with such a

helpful Head and happy staff.' There is no doubt after reading these letters that the last is the key point. Only in a few cases was the teacher regarded with apparent suspicion and disheartened by discouragement and cynicism to such an extent that she decided to seek a post elsewhere. There does appear, however, to be a fairly widespread distrust of 'new methods' by head teachers, although sometimes, it is true, they may only be objecting to them in the hands of inexperienced teachers or under bad conditions. These young people do not, however, strike one as impossible idealists, and more often the real cause of the distrust appears to be either mere conservatism or fear of bad results. The necessity of getting children through the scholarship is urged throughout the Junior school, and even in the Infant school. 'This is your class (of six-year-olds)—they need extra coaching for the scholarship'—is an extreme example of a common viewpoint. We all know that preoccupation with the Grammar School Entrance results is a real hindrance to education in the early stages. Until parents can be assured that Secondary Education outside the Grammar schools will truly advance their children's personal development and chances of good employment, such pressure seems, quite wrongly, likely to persist. It is interesting to see how some young teachers feel it. The futility and danger of forcing a teacher to use methods she does not believe in is well summed up by one new entrant—'For the sake of peace I am gradually allowing myself to submit to his way of working but whilst doing so I cannot do my best work.' On the other hand, some Heads go out of their way to show their appreciation—'she is so impressed by the improvisations that she has ordered far more basic materials so that we can do more.' Some are converted—after hearing her work in active measurement condemned, another teacher notices that the Head's class also is being sent out to measure the playground. 'He has become as enthusiastic about the home-grown fish as the children.' 'I never cease,' writes one student of her headteacher, 'to be grateful for her generosity, understanding and wholehearted co-operation.' Many new teachers find themselves ignorant of the routine of school life and are often rescued by their kindly colleagues or helped with the seemingly impossible task of getting the whole school in from play or of firing the backward English class with enthusiasm.

Some letters reveal anomalous situations. The Jewish student trained for Juniors and not noted for physical activity, who finds herself teaching Seniors in a Church Secondary School and specializing in games and country dancing, is but one example. But soon she had started a senior and intermediate netball team and a country dance display for Speech Day. Another teacher found herself after one term the only qualified teacher in a nursery school, as the Superintendent had to leave suddenly. She was even offered the job but wisely refused as she said, with some truth, 'I did not think that I had sufficient experience.' However, she managed to cope with the situation for the time being after her mother had won over the nursery cook. Sometimes there is no complaint but the situation seems a difficult one for the first year; 'I have to compete with a male teacher holding forth on the other side of the curtain. I can well understand why the class I had became so difficult to manage, as no less than five teachers had had it between September and January.' Of a backward class in a slum area of a great city a new teacher writes: 'They are extremely difficult to handle; one boy used to throw himself about the classroom all the time and the boys would fight and attack the girls. I found the class made me exhausted. I have the entire family making apparatus which I size and varnish because these children seem to collect dirt.'

Apart from especially bad conditions, the most common problems arise from lack of experience in dealing with large classes of varying abilities, and from having to teach subjects or the age range for which they have had no training. The latter usually occurs where the teacher has insisted on remaining, perhaps for valid family reasons, in a particular area. The fact that to be faced with a different, usually a younger, age range causes bewilderment could be regarded as an argument for a wider training; but it should always be regarded with sympathy and facilities for getting help and further knowledge provided.

A difficulty that the new entrants share with all teachers is shortage of equipment and materials. Some heads seem to be able to conjure it up from any Local Authority; others pride themselves on never spending the school fund. The necessity of spending personal money on materials is very often cited as a grievance. 'This is a real bugbear. Of course, there is no

absolute necessity but I have spent several pounds on things which I feel I need. For example—books, wooden boxes, nails, screws, tools for the children's woodwork and repairing toys, paint, paste, a doll's tea-set, farmyard animals.' Two other students spent 7/6 apiece in one term, others, unspecified amounts, while several make up their minds not to do so after the first term.

It is clear from many of the letters that the teachers concerned are taking or intend to take further courses of study, and thoroughly enjoy any opportunity for an intensive course. Crafts, physical education and dancing and music are the most popular courses but one student was taking a diploma in Social Studies while another was aiming at a degree in Science. The emergency trained teachers were obliged to take further courses and appear to be the most enthusiastic about them, but evidently few of these young teachers regard their education as over.

The opinions expressed in these letters are

those of young and inexperienced people and give their point of view only. Many of the problems encountered by new entrants are in fact shared by all teachers, particularly those problems that spring from outside circumstances such as crowded classes or pressure connected with the scholarship examination. They are, however, in a vulnerable position when defending new methods in which they believe, because they have no experience to draw on and may find themselves very frustrated. The problem needs to be tackled from two sides: Training Colleges need to be alive to the difficulties of the schools, and experienced teachers need to be careful that genuine effort and enterprise is never met by cynicism.

This small enquiry seems to show that careful follow-up work with students leaving Training Colleges will throw light on the difficulties they have to face. If carried on over a number of years it might also yield evidence of the qualities that lead to general success in teaching.

THE PROBLEM OF DISCIPLINE

Michael Balint, London

AT the end of a conference on children's behaviour problems, a friend of mine who had been giving some lectures there was attacked by a teacher: 'You child guidance people talk a lot about giving the child security, I wish you would try to give us teachers some too. Even in the most modern schools there must be some order, i.e. we must restrict the children's freedom in some way or other—and these days we can do so only with a guilty conscience.'

Now, let us contrast this hesitant and worried teacher with that happy, vociferous and confident sergeant whom I saw recently drilling the boys of an A.T.C. squadron. He had no guilty conscience, no qualms whatever about imposing arbitrary restrictions, about the methods chosen for imposing them, all of which apparently so much worried our conscientious teacher.

Here we have two quite different attitudes towards teaching and discipline. The simpler case is obviously that of the sergeant—and of the older school method. They have a firmly set pattern to aim at; a 'smart soldier' for the sergeant, a 'Christian gentleman' or a 'leader of men' for the traditional Public School. They are not worried by problems as to whether the pattern is right or wrong. They are all convinced

that their pattern is right, and have the same unshakeable confidence in their method.

What is this method? It certainly does not entail much individual treatment of the children, or much consideration for individual likes or dislikes. The same task is set for a whole group, and everyone is expected to achieve it. The educators admit quite freely that they wish to cause strain, to burden the children almost to the limit of their capacity. They advocate a liberal use of authority, of suggestive impression, and even of force, and are not shy of employing all sorts of arbitrary restrictions, even such as have little or no relation to the real life, present or future, of their pupils. I wish to quote only two examples out of many: Rifle and marching drill for gunners or air crews and the teaching of Latin grammar in secondary schools. It is highly unlikely that either of them will be of any use to the pupil in his later life; moreover the pupil has no initial interest in the subject taught; it is merely a task imposed upon him by higher authorities.

The case of the conscientious modern teacher is much more complex. Firstly he is rather uncertain about his aims; if asked what he wants to make of his pupils he will answer rather

vaguely: a 'free and happy man' or a 'well and happily adapted member of his social group'. He is uncertain also about his method and he cloaks it by calling his uncertainty an 'experimental attitude'. He has learnt his lesson well: before you can teach John Latin, you must know some Latin, but you must also know something about John. So all modern teachers have been at pains to study their pupils' likes and dislikes, their abilities and talents, their propensities and their instincts, their moods, anxieties and apprehensions, their occasional aggressiveness or neurotic dullness. These studies have led to an overhauling of all teaching methods which began in the nursery schools, spread then to the infant and junior schools but has not yet influenced the secondary schools much. The avowed aim has been to adapt the teaching to the child, in contrast to the old method where the pupil was expected to adapt himself to the teaching.

This new method arranges separate classes for bright and slow pupils; all possible care is taken not to overburden the child: time-tables are carefully planned and the sequence of periods is arranged so as not to overtire the children; the old traditional set subjects tend to disappear, in fact teaching in the old sense has become more and more disliked by the teachers. I heard an experienced headmaster say: 'The school counts as lost the time spent in the fifth form, because the whole year long the boys must study for their examination.' And a sincerely enthusiastic headmistress said to me: 'It really did not matter much what we taught to the children, the main thing was that they developed.'

The ideal of this new education is to restrict the educator's function to helping the child in his development, while avoiding any arbitrary interference or even an arbitrary direction of this development. It is implicitly hoped or even explicitly stated that reality will do the rest. Especially that 'a free', 'natural' discipline will establish itself spontaneously.

Thus we have arrived at formulating our problem. The 'free', 'natural' method claims to have abandoned all arbitrary restrictions and directions, to use as the only method of discipline the direct influence of reality. The old, 'strict' method replies that all this new fashion is stuff and nonsense, that children (recruits) must be told in no uncertain terms what they have got to do and how it is to be done.

II

It is obvious that the problem of discipline is one of the fundamental problems of any form of education. I propose therefore to examine its psychological implications. Psychologically discipline means going against one's own immediate wishes and interests for the sake of some other, 'higher', ends. In other words, though one is fully aware of a certain desire and there is an increasing tension felt, no action is taken and the tension is kept in suspense—often in the hope that time will come to relieve the tension and satisfy the desire. The two obvious conditions for such behaviour are: (a) that the mind should be able to bear the intensity of the tension, and (b) that the individual should have enough intelligence to enable him to take into account the consequences to be expected. In case of a well disciplined individual this latter function often happens automatically, unconsciously.

From this point of view a large part of education consists of imparting simple rules to the new generation, rules of 'you must' or 'you must not'. There are two classes of such rules. The first class is the self-evident type, its prototype is: you must not touch the fire. The second class consists of not self-evident rules. Its prototypes are the polite forms, conventional greetings, the use of certain phrases, such as please, thank you, sorry, I beg your pardon. In general you must behave 'properly'. In a way these rules are nonsensical, they have no inherent logic, no patent relation to reality as have the rules of the previous class. That is, harm does not necessarily follow if you do not comply with them. They are mere conventions.

Yet, no human society exists without them. The essential feature of all restrictions and rules of type II is that for the sake of others you have to wait your turn, you have to endure some perhaps even great tensions caused by not gratifying one or more of your wishes immediately. Moreover, the rules of type I are everywhere in the world the same. Rules of type II show an amazing and baffling variation from society to society; we see not only different forms, but are given different explanations why the rules must be enforced and also the ages differ at which children are expected to learn them.

Let me quote some examples: *Frogs* are eaten by the French, who consider them as a delicacy; they are not eaten by Jews because their religion

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forbids it; they are not eaten by the English because they are 'disgusting'. *Suckling the baby* happens in our society in strict seclusion, seldom for more than nine months, usually even for much less, and it is practically unheard of that any other child than her own would get milk from a woman unless she is engaged as a paid nurse. Among many primitive tribes mothers feed their babies unconcernedly in public, up to two, three and even four years, and a woman will give milk to any child of her own group if he or she asks for it.

Obviously the rules of type I cause little or no educational problem. What is needed is only care and supervision backed up by friendly advice. Reality is the true educator, and our rôle is only to draw attention in time to its working. The rules of behaviour of type II have hardly any relation to reality; conversely, reality has no educational influence on learning them at all. Moreover those not self-evident rules of 'must' and 'must not' must be enforced without any help from, or even contrary to, the child's intellectual judgment. In some cases they must be enforced at a very early age (weaning, cleanliness training), before intellectual judgment is possible; in other cases (religious or patriotic conventions) no intellectual criticism is permitted, or is immediately quenched, as is the case with sexual conventions such as those relating to nakedness or masturbation. It is obvious that the rules of

this not-self-evident type are the real problem of any education.

Our first question must therefore be, is it necessary to subject our children to the strain caused by compliance with such conventions, to teach them to do obediently certain things and equally obediently to avoid others? The fact that every form of society knows some sort of discipline of this type tends to argue that it is necessary. Moreover, the higher the civilization, the more numerous and more complicated are these non-self-evident rules and the earlier is the age at which they have to be imparted.

If a Central-Australian native wants to eat meat he takes his spear and boomerang and goes hunting. It is true certain animals are forbidden to him because of his totemistic taboos, but apart from that his problems are simple: is it possible to find an animal? is his skill enough? is the meat worth the effort? All of them are in direct relation to his original wish. With us there is necessarily a long time lag between the original wish and its gratification. This time lag is practically always brought about by a detour through money. Effort in our civilization is in general non-specific, has no direct relation to any original wish, because it is directed primarily towards acquiring money. Money represents tinned desires and the individual must be able to resist spending it, must be fully aware of the importance of providing for future needs. All this causes a great mental strain which must be endured all one's life long. This unavoidable detour through money, inherent in all complex forms of civilization, is a very important reason why our children must learn some kind of discipline.

Moreover, with our children who live as a rule under constant supervision in highly artificial 'civilized' circumstances, the direct influence of naked reality is not very great. In practice this influence is restricted to contact with fire and traffic and to some extent with water, gas and electricity. Under primitive circumstances, on the other hand, the direct influence of reality is obviously crucial. Thus the more complex a

civilization the more artificial 'civilized' the early environment of the children, the greater is the importance for education of the rules of behaviour of type II. Paradoxically, members of a complex civilization have to endure greater mental strains, have to learn many more complicated, roundabout ways for the gratification of their wishes, but the direct influence of non-human reality is incomparably smaller than in primitive societies. Conversely this means that education must resort to using *reality substitutes* in order to teach children how to behave under strain. A good example of such a reality substitute is the rifle and marching drill which in the beginning of this paper we saw our sergeant to enjoy so much.

All such reality substitutes are of necessity human, i.e. self-contradictory and irrational, whimsical and conventional. Rules of type II are, so to speak, 'instructions for use' of this human element, and as the human element itself is self-contradictory and irrational, whimsical and conventional, the rules of every society have to be so too.

III

I think we may agree that education in a civilized society cannot do without some 'must' and 'must not' rules and that most of those rules are unavoidably artificial or man-made. Here we are faced with a great number of problems. Granted that most of the rules of type II are artificial, i.e. they have to be taught by using reality substitutes instead of reality, we have to ask ourselves what sort of reality substitutes should be chosen? how much of them should be taught? how should we use them? and lastly, at what age shall we start teaching them?

The first question, *what sort of reality substitute i.e. 'school-subject' should be used for teaching?* is hotly discussed, and one hears widely diverging opinions. Of course, from the point of view of vocational education and the economic use of the time available for teaching, as well as of the manpower engaged in it, this is a highly important question. But for a psychologist, no. It is not very difficult to enumerate the qualities that a subject (a reality substitute) must possess in order that it may be used for teaching discipline. It must enable the pupil to achieve some success in a not too distant future, success should be neither too easy nor too difficult, practically every member of the group should be able to

arrive with some effort at an acceptable standard in it, to arrive at such a standard a fair amount of self-control should be essential. Further, some subordination of individual wishes to some socially 'higher' purpose should be clear to the pupil during the whole process of training. And lastly, it is necessary that the achievement should distinguish the pupil from all the others who have not undergone this training. Taking all this into consideration we must admit that, psychologically, marching drill has not been chosen too badly. Of course, the ideal is a drill that in addition teaches the pupil something that will be an advantage to him for life; obviously this will be more economical. From this angle the 'three R's' are a really excellent solution.

The question *when a certain reality substitute should be taught* is much more complex. There is an embarrassingly rich observational material available but very little of it reliably validated. In general we know that at certain ages pupils are very willing and keen; at others, on the other hand, rather recalcitrant and critical. I can only emphasize that there is a great need for systematic research into this problem throughout

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the whole age-range from cleanliness training through general and vocational education up to academic qualification and even beyond that.

The third question is *how should these artificial reality substitutes be introduced and taught?* I wish to discuss this question under two headings: (1) what means have we to make the child accept our demands? and (2) what are the consequences of our technique? The means used by every educator are reward and punishment. They are based on the comparative weakness of the child, who is dependent on us, is defenceless against us, is at our mercy. His happiness, often also his well-being, is threatened by our rewards and punishments and thus naturally we have a great influence on him. The problem 'love *versus* punishment' has been extensively discussed, so I propose to leave it alone, especially as from our point of view it is not so important as might appear in the light of the heated discussions.

So let us turn to (II) and ask what will be the consequences of our various techniques? The enforcing of any rules of conventional behaviour, i.e. any sort of discipline, must mean interference with the individual's wishes. He is expected not to yield to them at a given time or even not at all. This is why discipline is always backed up by some external force; criminal laws, religious commands, social conventions are all connected with some penal sanction. In order to avoid the pain threatening in principle every transgressor, we choose to endure the strain of our ungratified desires. Such a choice is only possible (a) after a certain age, i.e. after development of the necessary degree of judgment; (b) if the tempting desire and the threatening consequences are commensurable, and (c) if the mental structure of the individual is healthy enough, which means—if we exclude severely pathological cases—if his previous training has been neither too lenient nor overwhelmingly severe. In all these three cases—immature powers of judgment, disproportion between gratification and punishment, faulty previous training—the individual will be too weak to bear the responsibility of choosing for himself, and he is driven to resort to the use of a new mental mechanism.

In a primitive phase, discipline and rules are complied with as long as the external force behind them is actively felt. If the external force decreases or its immediate presence is not felt, a

relapse into an undisciplined state may easily follow. An often quoted example of such a happening is the case of an already clean child who may become enuretic if he is separated from the person he loves or is afraid of. In a later stage the same performance is achieved even in the absence of any external force, on one's own. Thus, for example, in an adult an occasional loss of urinary control is followed practically always by shame, disgust, remorse. It is the signal triumph of discipline, to change a function which was originally pleasant or indifferent into one for which we have no more desire, or which even causes shame and disgust in us. This is achieved by the setting up of an instance within the mind which henceforth will compel us forever to feel as prescribed by our educators. This new instance is the super-ego.

The super-ego prescribes for us standards of behaviour, of feeling, and thinking, and measures our actual performance by those standards; and if we fall short of these standards it causes remorse and guilt feelings in us. Most of its functions are restrictive, it inhibits the gratification of certain of our instinctual desires, it imposes a discipline on us. Obviously all its prohibitions are not equally severe. Some gratifications are forbidden though admittedly pleasant, such as cheating or taking unfair advantage of others. Some are permitted only under certain conditions such as pleasure in nakedness, bullying or being messy and dirty. In other cases the original pleasure has been brought down to the level of indifference, in most 'civilized' people this is so in the case of cruelty or destructiveness. And lastly certain instinctual urges have been changed so that they are no longer enjoyable but cause shame and disgust as is the case with enuresis.

The stricter the super-ego, the more unconditional are its commands. But it always betrays its origin; it is not a tidy system but a chance sum total of motley *ad hoc* solutions, which on the one hand are formal, inconsistent, often illogical and self-contradictory and on the other hand rigid, inelastic, impersonal, often inhuman. Though it is true that hypocrisy is an essentially super-ego function, so also is decency, loyalty and fairmindedness. A question that every educator ought to ask himself is, what sort of super-ego should he aim at and to what functions of human life should its rule be extended. While trying to answer these questions he should always bear in

mind the consequences of his decision, both for the individual and for the community.

IV

Having a strict and comprehensive super-ego enables the individual to function economically in routine situations, to achieve considerable saving in mental energy. Most problems of life have been settled for him for good; he has a ready answer for everything, there is no need to think, try, experiment. He knows that this is so, and avoids in this way a burden of deciding for himself. The disadvantages are that any new adaptation is very difficult; if the remaining pleasures (those not prohibited by his super-ego) become impossible to him through a change of his individual or the general situation, he is threatened by a serious breakdown. For the community in the same way it is an advantage to have members with a strict super-ego in so far as it is much simpler to handle a standardized population; they have fewer individual demands, they are more easily led, more easily accounted for. The disadvantage is that it is almost impossible to interfere with their remaining gratifications without courting the danger of a rebellion or of a destructive panic.

Thus, we have to ask ourselves: shall education aim at strict discipline, at as complete and automatic control of instinctual wishes as possible? or, on the contrary, should it aim at as much free choice as is compatible with social life? The first alternative means predetermined patterns, which cannot be chosen by the individual but are fixed by his superiors without asking him; this is the case of the rifle and marching drill. The latter alternative tolerates a much greater range of individual difference in wishes and in their gratifications but must necessarily hold the individual responsible for his choice, must demand that he bear the consequences; this is the democratic ideal. We must, however, not forget that, at least as short term policy, automatic control is a

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V

If it is not to be automatic control then, arrived at by super-ego-education, what else can it be? And if this something else is better, how can it be achieved?

As we have seen, discipline is necessary in every 'civilized' education and, further, 'natural' discipline is non-existent; it is only wishful thinking. Discipline, therefore, is always artificial, compelling the individual to learn the rules of 'must' and 'must not' of his social setting. Very frequently these rules will be embodied in the super-ego. But many others, though essential for community life, involve little or no super-ego function. A good example is the 'keep to the left' rule. 'Keep to the right' is just as sensible; there is hardly anything to choose between the two. The only thing about them is that by general consent everybody should obey them practically always, although they have no relation to *right* or *wrong*. There are quite a number of such 'sensible' conventional rules, e.g. bus queues,

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knife in the right hand, fork in the left, and so on.

All these rules have to be taught, and become more or less automatic, though neither absolutely rigid nor causing much guilt-feeling if they are broken. Moreover, there is an important difference in our attitude while teaching these 'sensible' rules. As I pointed out, we know fairly well what the circumstances are that facilitate the building up of a strict super-ego. The commandment must be enforced before any intellectual judgment is possible, or if it has to be enforced at a later age no intellectual criticism can be permitted. There must be a great disproportion between the gratification of the instinctual wish in question and the threatening consequences. And lastly the individual must be sensitized either by much too little or much too severe previous training. In fact, to build up a strict super-ego one must make the ego weak as compared with the task put before it.

The other way of education, which aims at avoiding strengthening the super-ego, is to strengthen the ego by deliberate mental training. Here too we know a good deal about the necessary conditions: it is not advisable to try to spare the child by omitting tasks from his training; on the contrary, tasks should be chosen that are not too easy that shall cause a fair amount of strain; but care must be taken that although the strain may be considerable (there is even no harm if at times success may appear unattainable) the tasks must never be quite hopeless, the situation never quite desperate.

Obviously this needs very careful planning and cautious weighing up of all the relevant factors. Individual treatment is crucially important in this kind of teaching discipline: one task may be easy for one child which is almost hopeless for

another. Examples are easy to quote: to sit still for an overactive child, to get on with the work and to be punctual to a dreamy child, to stand up against criticism and to assert himself to a submissive child, to give in to an argumentative child, and so on.

To build up a strict super-ego there is no need for such individual treatment; on the contrary the more impersonal, inconsiderate, intolerant the treatment is, in general, the stricter will be the resulting super-ego. This may be the explanation for the effectiveness and the quick results of totalitarian education. To build up a strong ego, a critical but co-operative mind, is a much more difficult task for education. Above all it needs a very searching and minute control of our own ideals, methods and behaviour while dealing with our pupils. There are many reasons why this control is necessary. Here I will discuss only one.

As we have seen, in all communities the behaviour of the adults has been built on the vestiges and scars of their own childhood sufferings. This is, of course, true also for ourselves. That means that we are not free, that our behaviour also is partly determined by automatic super-ego functions, our general behaviour in the same way as our behaviour while training our children. Thus education in the first instance consists in inflicting sufferings on our children determined by those which we had to suffer in our childhood. If we are not too dissatisfied with our upbringing, we will certainly choose similar ways of educating our children to those we had to experience in our own childhood. If we are dissatisfied we are likely to try to find something different. In both cases, however, our behaviour will be strictly determined. To overcome the limitations caused by one's own upbringing is the most difficult task for any educator. From this point of view traditional education means handing on the suffering that was sanctified by our own pains. But in the same way anti-traditional, reformist education means an attempt at sparing the child that kind of suffering which caused the greatest pain to us. There is danger in both; they may become blind towards anything but their main concern.

We may choose, but whatever our choice, we cannot have something for nothing; a price must be paid by all those who take part in education: by the community, by the teacher, and above all by the children.

TOWARDS A STUDY OF TRUANCY

Stephen Linton

IF teachers knew what my father did to my brother, they would forgive him for not always coming to school.' This quaint tribute to Alan was made by his eleven-year-old brother, who had perceived what many teachers do not: that truancy can rarely be taken at its face value. For there are differences between the boy who takes an afternoon off to watch a football match, a shy, retiring child at the back of the class who suddenly disappears for weeks on end until he returns with a note scribbled on the back of a warning notice, and the aggressive boy who has a couple of days' absence during which he breaks into a shop. On his return, any one of these boys will probably get a caning for the trouble he has caused or the deceit he has practised. Even if the head teacher knows quite definitely what the situation seems to demand of him, staff room comment sometimes suggests uncertainty. In this article I am concerned more with the persistent than the casual truant at the Secondary School stage, and I by no means intend to present a comprehensive summary of what we know, but rather an indication of what we *don't* know, illustrated by the abbreviated histories of eight truants whom I have had to do with, mainly during free periods at school in the last eighteen months.

No large-scale scientific study of truancy has ever been made in England. This is probably because the very small percentage of children involved has never merited it. Interest in the subject seems to have started in the United States nearly forty years ago; from then on the bulk of what is generally an obscure and inaccessible literature has been of American origin, and as such almost entirely sociological in its approach. Some emphasis is laid on the association of truancy and faulty grade-placement in the school system, and various assessments have been made of its connection with delinquency. In England, however, although we had our truant schools up to the early 'twenties, the literature has been almost exclusively taken up with the psychological background; thus one authority commented that, out of the fifty cases he had examined, only four shewed dislike of school as a major factor, and that the school played no part at all in causing persistent truancy. Apart from refer-

ences in the better known books on delinquency, one or two recent studies mention truancy in its legal setting and make some strictures on the machinery that is responsible for the working out of the already rather clumsy law of attendance.

Reviewing the literature on truancy the following conclusions may be reasonably drawn. All writers are agreed that truancy is a symptom and not an entity itself; that truancy is not a clear-cut concept and therefore we cannot be sure that the courts deal with a representative sample of such cases; that truancy is serious. Viewed as a maladjustment we know that truancy is sometimes caused by unsettled home background, jealousy of brothers or sisters, glaring misfits in school, and so on. But if we watch three similar children faced with three similar problems, we are not in a position to say with certainty what makes one throw a brick through a window, another simply sulk, and the third refuse to go to school.

At this point I wish to reintroduce *Alan*. He was rather tall for thirteen, with a friendly open manner. He was quiet and attentive in class and on two afternoons a week he went to a special centre for maladjusted children. After two months or so I thought I would enquire about his progress at the centre, only to be told that he hadn't attended there for as long as I had known him. To me he seemed a likeable and normal person and since it was quite certain that his father treated him abominably (both Alan and his mother were quite frank about this), in due course a place was found for him by the local authority in a residential school.

Barry didn't shew any of the flaming temper red hair is supposed to bestow. Soon after his arrival at his Secondary Modern school he began to truant, and he only stopped truanting when he was transferred to the Special Reading Class for which his abilities did not qualify him. His was the only case I have met in which the place chosen for his wandering seemed to have any significance for the boy. Four years previously Barry had been out for a walk with a younger brother who fell in the river and was drowned. When he was meant to be at school Barry revisited the scene and also went to protect from rougher boys, so he said, his youngest brother

now in the Infants' School. On being relegated to his normal class the truancy started again and finally Barry was transferred to another school much nearer his home, precisely the one on the ground floor of which his little brother's school was housed. Thereupon truancy ceased.

Quite a different case was *Charlie*, and when I last made an enquiry about him he had started to truant again at his third secondary school, after the family had moved to better accommodation in another district. Reserved in the classroom but otherwise very anxious to be friendly with adults (perhaps as a compensation for the indifference of his school companions), no one would have guessed that two days after he was born he contracted jaundice and had to have eight blood transfusions, spending two months in hospital. Within the next four years he also had pneumonia twice, spinal fever, measles, whooping cough and chicken pox. Two years ago the family returned from Wales because the father got a job again in London; from then on truancy both from school and home began, though this was never persistent enough for the case to get into court. Apart from being publicly ridiculed for his truancy at one school, there were certainly the disturbing elements in his life of sharing a bed with his eighteen year-old sister and of quarrels between his parents. There was evidence of a defective relationship between Charlie and his father, as well as signs of a neurotic attitude towards punishment.

One knew little of *Donald* because he was so seldom at school. About the family on the other hand, a good deal was known; two elder brothers were reported to have specialized in truancy, and the supply of money which Donald's highly-strung mother received seemed to depend on his father's moods and sleeping arrangements. In this instance one felt it was a matter of how soon the local authority could legitimately interfere.

Eddy was a mystery. His was about the best documented case because he had been remanded by the court for psychological investigation and had eventually been put on probation. He still failed to attend school, and on his second stay in the Remand Home I was present while the psychiatrist interviewed him. There is not the space here to give the full account which this case merits, and therefore only the basic facts will be mentioned, nor is the diagnosis necessarily conclusive. At school Eddy was perfectly behaved

as he was at home; perhaps too well behaved. His mother seemed unable to cope with his father when he returned from six years in the Army. Eddy himself apparently had a recurrent dream in which he was being carried away in the dark from school by a man, but his pleasantest dream was that he saw himself doing his carpentry at home with his parents standing by praising what he did. When asked to draw something he made a picture of the fireside at home. There were indications, therefore, that what Eddy needed was approval, and school, probation officer and home had failed to satisfy his need in this respect. He was committed to the care of the local authority and is now in a residential school where he has settled down well.

Fred and *Geoffrey* are both in my class at present. Fred is no trouble at all; he is polite and industrious, qualifies as one of the best artists and is a talented model-maker. His only fault is that he doesn't always come to school; sometimes this is because he has headaches (his stepfather wrote to say I would know this was the reason if he were to be occasionally absent in the future!), but this could not explain why, without any particular warning, he had a fortnight's holiday on a farm last November and thereafter didn't reappear for a couple of months. As far as I can ascertain the family has always had migratory habits, and it seems that Fred's real father occasionally puts in an appearance. Unlike some truants he is not socially isolated from his schoolfellows and his attainments do not lag far behind the limits apparently set by his intelligence.

Just before *Geoffrey* came into my class last September he had been put on probation for two years for truancy. I gathered from his probation officer (who is one of the few I have met who come round in their limited time to find out what the school is doing) that his home conditions were disgraceful. So far probation has been successful with *Geoffrey* and there has been no recurrence of truancy. Provided Fred is sufficiently encouraged at school he too may continue to come regularly.

And finally there is *Harry*, who is nearly twelve. Unlike Charlie, whose parents had to advertise for him, Harry recently had his name in the paper for the right sort of reason, because he saved two cats from drowning, and thus attracted the proper sort of attention. It was about a year ago that

he began to attract the wrong kind of notice by truanting from his Junior school; when this occurred again at his Secondary Modern school I had an opportunity of interviewing Harry and both his parents. Test results indicated that he was fully capable of doing the work of his class and that Reading and Arithmetic Quotients corresponded closely to his Intelligence Quotient, though a projection test disclosed a marked sense of failure over school work. Both his brother and sister, who were older, went to Grammar schools. Amongst other factors should be mentioned Harry's close attachment to his mother, his father's long absence in the war as a prisoner and an air-raid experience when the house they were living in was hit. In contrast with some of the cases described above both parents were concerned to do all they could for the boy and claimed they had always treated him most considerately. None the less, during the interviews it became obvious that Harry was a highly nervous child, 'acting out' aggressive drawings in front of the investigator in an orgy of destruction; from home came a history of enuresis, nightmares, opening and shutting of cupboards, and so on. It is hoped that treatment at a Child Guidance clinic will be arranged for him, but meanwhile an attempt is being made at home and at school to encourage his interests, particularly where animals are concerned.

From the brief summaries of these eight cases it is possible to make a few tentative deductions. Truancy has to go to quite considerable lengths before obtaining official recognition: none the less Charlie seemed as much in need of help as Geoffrey, who is getting it. Living conditions, though they may aggravate as was the case with Barry, Charlie, Donald and Geoffrey, were almost certainly not the sole cause. In each instance truancy actually started in the Junior school: what part did the school play? There is not sufficient evidence on which to base an accurate answer to this question. Clearly backwardness is

no explanation because not all backward children truant though they may be equally frustrated and discouraged, and moreover not all truants are backward. The suggestion is that some types of children are predisposed to react unfavourably to certain school experiences: if we could identify these children and find out *at the time* (not by deduction later) what goes wrong, we ought to learn something very valuable both about children and teaching as a whole.

When adults are worried by something, they often go for a walk to think it out. Clearly some children, in whom the habit of going to school is not very strong, work on the same principle. The truant seems to react to authority not by attacking it but by running away from it. As to what the school can do I know of no simple recipe. It might be better to place the enforcement of school attendance in the hands of a welfare worker more intimately connected with the school. Otherwise, at the moment the teacher can do only what ought to be done for every child; by firm and sympathetic handling to let him create for himself a recognized place in the community.

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THE DANGERS OF A DICTIONARY

Vernon Rosetti

THERE was a time when my English Composition periods were punctuated with 'Please, sir, how do you spell . . .?' and 'What is the adjective formed from Naples?' and 'Can you tell me another word meaning inefficient?' I encouraged the questions, and answered most of them, until the classes reached a point of such enthusiasm for *le mot juste* that I was answering twenty questions a minute, and trying to deal with a queue which never got any shorter. The questions were genuine enough, but on the day when I noticed that there were more pupils waiting to ask questions than there were sitting writing, I also noticed that my nerves were wearing thin, and I announced that in future the answer to every question would be 'Look it up'. The first stage had been the necessary one of encouraging them to care about exactness and accuracy. I now looked forward to a faster rate of progress, spurred on by personal enterprise.

The use of reference books in general works very well. It soon produces a room full of busy enquirers making the acquaintance of books which they had previously imagined to be stuck on the shelves and not intended for removal. It was Walter Scott who first showed the dangers of the dictionary. I had failed to find any way of interesting a B form of thirteen-year-olds in *Quentin Durward*. It had not been my choice. I made no special effort to make the book interesting, because I was convinced that it could not be done with this form. We stopped on every line, to explain atrabilious, premeditation, malignity, trot-cosey, authenticity, to cope with Scottish or medieval terms, or to trace back through half a page, an interminable sentence.

At last I decided that at least the book could be used to extend the vocabulary of the class. I told them to take a piece of paper, a dictionary, and page one of *Quentin Durward*. They were to write down the words they did not know, and then the meaning of the word. This kind of personal plodding search sometimes appeals to a B form. They did their best with the first sentence of the introduction: 'The scene of this romance is laid in the fifteenth century, when the feudal system, which had been the sinews and nerves of national defence, and the spirit of chivalry, by which, as by a vivifying soul, that

system was animated, began to be innovated upon and abandoned by those grosser characters, who centred their sum of happiness in procuring the personal objects on which they had fixed their own exclusive attachment.' There are some well-educated adults, who can really grasp the meaning of this, after re-reading it. I had no hopes that the form would compete with this standard, however, even when they had looked up all the words, so I advised turning on to the next chapter, which is also called *Introduction*, and occurs sixteen pages later. But that was worse than the first introduction, so we moved on to Chapter One, forty pages on; that looked more tolerable. It was fifteen minutes before trouble arrived in the shape of the tubby form stammerer, who came up deeply shaken, and asked,

'P-please sir, wh'what's the m-meaning of un-s-seemly p-promiscuous s-sexual c-congress w-within the for-forbidden d-degrees?' He looked again at the dictionary in his hand, which the publishers had said was specially intended for use in schools.

'The what?' I asked, hoping that while he went through it again, I should have time at least to understand the question. He repeated it, but I had to borrow his dictionary before I discovered that all this was a definition of 'incest', and moreover, that 'incest, murder and rapine' was the phrase the boy was doing research on. Before his research could get any farther, we turned away from *Quentin Durward*, to everyone's relief.

Admitting that the book should never have

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been set, the fact remains that the dictionary was of little help; it can at times be dangerous. A simple word like 'gain' turns out to mean 'increase of possessions, resources or advantages, consequent on some action or event', while the significance of 'smell' is 'the sense peculiar to the nose, the quality perceived by this, act of inhaling to test smell, possess or exercise sense of smell, perceive or detect by smell'. Now definition is a very difficult business; the dictionary is rightly determined to be exact, and therefore even in a school edition, is often difficult to follow, or misleading. Obsolete words are often not included—yet even a mild course in literature requires a knowledge of words that have dropped out of use. Dictionaries are conservative—they cannot print recent words, until the compilers

are sure that these words are going to remain in the language, so that 'pylon', or 'monitor' in the B.B.C. sense, are not found. Even when three or four meanings are given for every word, none of these may be the one that is being looked for at the moment.

There is really only one way out. Words are alive, and imbued with much personal feeling and warmth. The character of any word will take a nuance of feeling according to the sentence it is in. Each word must be taken in its context. A dictionary cannot help being cold and formal about its information. I have gone back to giving many answers myself, and explaining the shade of meaning needed at the moment. In the Middle School, a dictionary's chief value lies in teaching children to teach themselves spelling.

HUMAN RIGHTS

Following the preparation in 1949 of a critical symposium on *Human Rights* (published by Alan Wingate), Unesco has now published (available from H.M.S.O., 25/-, including purchase tax, or 26/4, post paid) an Exhibition-Album on Human Rights, consisting of 110 black and white illustrations (19" x 12½"), each with a separate caption (19" x 4½"). These pictures are intended to depict the historical struggles for, and the present-day importance of, the fundamental freedoms included in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights adopted by the U.N. General Assembly on the 10th December, 1949. The captions, for convenience and economy in distributing sets of the exhibits in various languages, are produced separately from the pictures, but suitably mounted and displayed the whole set provides a magnificent exhibition which should do much to popularize the Declaration. More detailed background knowledge is provided in a 35-page *Short History of Human Rights*, included with each set.

An introductory group of pictures review the distance travelled by mankind from prehistoric times to the present day, and the recent fascist threat to human rights. The remaining pictures illustrate historically the thirty Articles of the Declaration, but are grouped as follows: (1) the Abolition of Slavery and Serfdom; (2) Freedom of Circulation and Travel; (3) The Abolition of Inhuman and Cruel Practices; (4) Safeguards against Arbitrary Arrest; (5) Dignity of Labour and Social Legislation; (6) Social Security; (7) the Protection of Family Life and of Property; (8) the Emancipation of Women; (9) Free-

dom of Religion; (10) Freedom of Thought and Opinion; (11) The Right to Education; (12) Participation in Cultural Life; (13) Freedom of Creative Work; and (14) Participation in Government.

Although No. 48 ('Building a Wall in the sixteenth century') is not entirely convincing as an illustration of the dignity of labour before the Industrial Revolution, most of the pictures, collected from far and wide, are well-chosen and most skilfully presented.

Not everyone will agree with everything in the captions and the text, with the approach adopted for each theme, or with the particular selection

made, or emphasis given, in summarizing the basic struggles involved; but a few comments on each section will indicate the stimulating and provocative character of this Album.

(1) While it may be a little confusing to deal with the end of ancient slavery, or serfdom, and of modern negro slavery in the same section; and a little misleading to ignore, in the establishment of personal freedom, the rôle of peasant rebellions and changing economic circumstances, yet the dramatic evolution of this most fundamental of all freedoms is carefully detailed both in the pictures and the booklet.

(2) Although in the period 1900-1914 one could travel freely across almost all of Europe without a passport, and the problems of currency, labour supply, and political security involved in movement, temporary or permanent, across frontiers, were much simpler than to-day, many did not then have money or leisure for foreign travel.

(3) The gory illustrations of torture by elongation and of the details of drawing and quartering are so effective that possibly they will distress some young observers and distract others from the other exhibits. There might have been more examples of the decline of personal violence in everyday relationships, of the growth of children's rights, and of the development of a conscience against barbarous methods of warfare.

(4) Possibly a one-sided and over-critical view is presented of the Industrial Revolution, although in general the liberating effect of applied science is made clear. The maxim of Lammenais that, as between rich and poor, 'it is liberty that brings oppression, and the law that gives freedom', is happily

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chosen, but past labour struggles might have been illustrated more specifically instead of placing together portraits of Proudhon, Marx, and Pope Leo XIII as reformers whose writings helped workers to win their rights, 'sometimes after violence'. While illustrations of the social history of many countries are rather meagre, and one feels in the presentation a certain complacency about contemporary social conditions (except housing) and labour rights in the west, it is noted in the text that the Soviet regime brought a complete reappraisal of the workers' position in the structure of modern society.

(5) The material on social security is not very representative, as far as British developments are concerned, the impression left by the booklet being that the significant change came in 1796! It is surprising to find Louis XIV, like our Henry VIII, exalted as one who seriously cared for the welfare of the poor, but the pictures illustrating wealth and poverty in sixteenth century France are most striking.

(6) The relevant contemporary problems of divorce, housing and population in connection with family life, and of socialist 'confiscation' (which is to be decided by 'the conscience of citizens') are rather slurred over, and the opportunity lost to show that liberties may conflict, and that ideas of freedom may vary according to social position.

(7) More successful is the section on the emancipation of women, although such current questions as equal pay, the possible conflict of home and career, or the position of women under nazism and communism, are ignored; while the past position of women of the people is not clearly portrayed.

(8) Religious intolerance is perhaps treated a little too much in isolation from the social, economic and political factors (the quarrels of factions, of classes, of nations and of civilizations), with which religious history has been so inextricably mixed; and the progressive rôle in the long run of the Reformation is not indicated. Some seventeenth century Puritans contributed no less to religious toleration than did the thinkers of the eighteenth century Enlightenment. More reference to past struggles between church and state might also have made the somewhat similar problem in eastern Europe to-day a little more comprehensible. Historical study may help us to understand the outlooks and circumstances of the rulers and peoples who supported persecution, not always solely for the sake of ideas; and to appreciate that liberty has not always been the result of merely liberal activity, and that continuing social

struggles for high purposes may sometimes require the temporary sacrifice of lesser liberties.

(9) The legal guarantees in the new India of freedom of speech and expression are contrasted with the alleged retrogression of 'freedom of information', 'in certain parts of the world', but powerful interests may be able to exert deadly influence on the press even where there is no political control. The illustrations, however, of the burning of books and the seizure of presses (e.g. in France in 1830) are most relevant.

(10) The account of the growth of a right to education and of access to culture has necessarily to be superficial, but is especially so on English developments and on recent problems. Possibly too much attention is paid to great educationists and too little to the quantity and quality of popular education under various regimes, although sound education is shown to be essential to democracy.

(11) Our right to the fruits of scientific knowledge is illustrated vividly, even if there is little indication of the contemporary frustrations and perversions of science by political or economic circumstances.

(12) The romantic view of the artist's need for liberty and solitude may obscure the equal truth that the great artist has frequently been, not simply an inspired genius, but a man actively absorbed in the life of his times, but the importance of creating a congenial material and intellectual environment for civilization, is clearly emphasized.

(13) Although the historic struggles of the peoples of the U.S.A. and of the Latin American republics to participate in their own government are portrayed, there is little illustration of the struggles for national independence of other peoples, against Turk or Hapsburg, Napoleon or Hitler; or of more recent struggles for colonial independence. On political liberty generally, it is disappointing that more reference is not made to such figures as Pericles and Lincoln, Rainborough and Lilburne (in whose times ideas of popular sovereignty were first hammered out), Diderot and Voltaire (or Rousseau), Wilkes and Tom Paine, Mazzini and Masaryk. To say that 'a whole people was converted to fanaticism and war' perhaps over-simplifies the nature of German fascism, and obscures the fact that in certain conditions, fascism, like racial discrimination, is likely to become a danger anywhere. Little consideration, however, is given to the different forms that 'popular participation' may take in different national environments, where the European ballot-box or the American voting machine, depicted

re, may not represent the most appropriate form of democracy. Nor is it easy for an exhibition of this sort to portray the problems of democratic participation that arise where one or two parties hold a virtual monopoly of influence.

Occasionally in this Album the struggles to establish particular human rights are presented as if they were led necessarily by liberal and reasonable reformers, whose benevolent ideas alone can overcome the resistance of prejudices and entrenched interests, without the need either for popular participation or for the inspiration and guidance of men of action or passion of revolutionary determination—for men like Henry VIII or Luther or Oliver Cromwell, as well as for more moderate men of intelligence like Beane or Erasmus or Clarendon. The complexities of the historical process have not generally been overlooked, however, in this imaginative endeavour to portray the evolution of human rights.

The claim that all peoples, all nations, and all civilizations have contributed to the present sum-total of these rights cannot, of course, be more than suggested, just as it is impossible to portray adequately the varied conceptions of life and liberty

dominant in different civilizations and epochs. One wonders, however, whether it might not have been as revealing to bring together for each successive epoch (not necessarily contemporaneous for all countries) the various aspects of liberty, rather than to deal in turn with fourteen separate aspects of our modern complex of liberties, each considered throughout all history in isolation from the other aspects. Might this approach not show more clearly something of the changing forms of the eternal problem of liberty and order, the possible conflicts between the various human rights as well as their mutual interdependence, and the varied possible interpretations and emphases preferred by differently placed groups?

While a uniform and unchanging pattern of human rights for all countries at all stages of development is not to be contemplated, if education for international understanding is to be taken seriously, the relevance of the conception in our epoch of a minimum of fundamental freedoms universally observed, is sometimes presented in this Album, as far as the West is concerned, a little too much as a heritage rather than a challenge, and, as far as Eastern and Colonial areas are concerned, is hardly posed concretely.

Whatever detailed criticisms the historian, the political thinker, or the teacher may make, however, the epic scope of the theme of this Album, and the vital quality of the exhibits, as long as they are used as an aid to teaching, and not a substitute for it, will make a lasting impression on those who see the pictures sensibly and carefully displayed; will stimulate serious thought; and evoke an intelligent enthusiasm, of which good use can be made in our history or social studies lessons. To look through these pictures is to feel the urgency of making the history of other countries alive and real to the young, and to be convinced that an approach through the theme of human rights will prove one of the most stimulating. It is easy to feel that the history of one's own country has been treated a little inadequately in this collection, but if each Member-State of Unesco can be inspired to produce a similar Album for its own national history and, in due course, a composite text-book, with illustrations, be prepared for universal reference and study, the work of spreading the ideas of the Universal Declaration, as well as some degree of international understanding, will make good progress.

W. E. Payne

Directory of Schools

KILQUHANITY HOUSE **CASTLE DOUGLAS SCOTLAND**

FOR BOYS AND GIRLS 3-18 YEARS

Established in 1940, Kilquhanity House frankly owes its inception to the work of A. S. Neill, who now considers it in the direct line of his own school and that of Homer Lane. It does not, however, cater for problem children. In practice there is an attempt to combine the traditional thoroughness of Scottish education with self-government for the pupils. Activity methods are used throughout, and the teaching staff is qualified to the standards demanded by the Scottish Education Department, which inspects the school. There is ample opportunity for practice in all the creative arts. A small mixed farm is a fundamental part—as distinct from an adjunct—of the school. The diet is on food reform lines, though children do not require to be vegetarian.

Fees : £150-£180 PER ANNUM

Headmaster : J. M. AITKENHEAD, M.A. (Hons.), Ed.B

ABBOTSHOLME SCHOOL **DERBYSHIRE**

(Postal Address : Nr. Rocester, Uttoxeter, Staffs.)

Headmaster :

C. ARTHUR HUMPHREY, M.A. (OXON.)

For Boys of 11 to 18, with a Junior School Section for boys of 9 to 11.

Scholarship and entrance tests for September, 1952, take place at the School at the end of March. Further particulars may be obtained from the Headmaster's Secretary.

WENNINGTON SCHOOL **WETHERBY.**

Founded 1940.

Boys and Girls, 8—18.

A new type of Boarding School, well-organised and efficient without losing the family quality of life. Wholesome vigorous community providing a training in disciplined co-operation and practical social responsibility. Well balanced curriculum. Graduate teachers.

KENNETH C. BARNES, B.Sc.

Directory of Schools—continued

BADMINTON SCHOOL

Westbury-on-Trym

:: BRISTOL. ::

Junior School 6 to 11 years

Senior School 12 to 19 years

The School is situated in large grounds and within easy reach of Bristol, so the older girls are able to enjoy many of the advantages provided by a University City. A high standard of scholarship is maintained and at the same time an interest in creative work is developed by the practical and theoretical study of Art and Music. There are weekly discussions on World Affairs and more intensive work on Social and International problems is done by means of voluntary Study Circles.

Apply to The Secretary.

DARTINGTON HALL

TOTNES

DEVON

Headmaster : W. B. CURRY, M.A., B.Sc.

A co-educational boarding school for boys and girls from 2-18 in the centre of a 2,000 acre estate engaged in the scientific development of rural industries. The school gives to Arts and Crafts, Dance, Drama and Music the special attention customary in progressive schools, and combines a modern outlook which is non-sectarian and international with a free and informal atmosphere. It aims to establish the high intellectual and academic standards of the best traditional schools.

Fees : £200-£240 per annum.

A limited number of scholarships are available, and further information about these may be obtained from the Headmaster.

BEDALES SCHOOL

PETERSFIELD HANTS (Founded 1893)

A Co-educational Boarding School for boys and girls from 11½-18. Separate Junior School for those from 5-11. Inspected by the Ministry of Education. Country estate of 150 acres. Home Farm. Education is on modern lines and aims at securing the fullest individual development in, and through, the community.

Headmaster : **H. B. JACKS, M.A. (Oxon.)**

Wychwood School, Oxford

RECOGNIZED BY MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

Maximum of 80 girls (boarding and day pupils) aged 10-18. Small classes, large graduate staff. Education in widest sense under unusually happy and free conditions. Exceptional health record. Elder girls can work for universities, can specialize in Music, or take year's training at Wychlea (Domestic Science House). Playing fields, bathing pool.

Principals : Miss MARGARET LEE, M.A. (Oxon.)
Late University Tutor in English.
Miss E. M. SNODGRASS, M.A. (Oxon.)

FRENSHAM HEIGHTS FARNHAM, SURREY.

Headmaster : KENNETH KEAST, M.A.

Frensham Heights is a co-educational school containing at present 160 boarders and 40 day pupils equally divided as to sex and equally distributed in age from 8 to 18.

The school stands in a high position in 170 acres of ground. There is a separate Junior School for children from 8 to 11.

Fees : £210 per annum inclusive.

About three scholarships are offered annually.

For particulars apply Headmaster.

THE GATEWAY SCHOOL

(Late LITTLE ELMTREES)

MOBWELL HOUSE, GT. MISSENDEN, BUCKS.

A Georgian house in five acres of grounds on the Chiltern Hills provides a happy home life and an all-round education for children 3-7 years. The school is gay and artistic in its furnishings and fully-equipped to meet the needs of young children.

Principal : MISS M. K. WILSON

PENDRAGON HALL

59 Bath Road, Reading, Berks.

A co-educational boarding and day school for children between 5 and 14 years of age. Original curriculum designed to foster individual growth and social responsibility.

Also TRAINING SCHOOL FOR MARGARET MORRIS MOVEMENT (Southern Centre)

The new Theatre is being built and there are vacancies for students (aged 14 or over) who wish to make a career of Margaret Morris Movement in its teaching, medical or stage aspects. Dennis March, B.A. Sylvia March, L.R.A.M. Claire Cassidy, M.M.M.

THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

'The music stopped and I stood still
And found myself outside the hill,
Left alone against my will
To go now limping as before
And never hear of that country more.'

from 'The Pied Piper'.

He is one of many who stand alone and tense because some illness or accident has cast its shade across his path and deprived him of the chance to join in the joys and activities of children with freedom and movement. We must go to him not only with affection and comfort but with a whisper of that promise that he, too, in some way can enter into the Country of Childhood. He may not be able to walk there, splashing through the puddles on the road ; he may not be able to run to it with his Red Indian feathers blowing in the breeze ; he may not even be able to dawdle while trying to keep his jar of tadpoles from spilling, but he must get there somehow by the wings of his spirit. It is not so much the walking that matters to the boy who is yearning to live, as the puddles and the tadpoles that he wants to meet at the right moment in his growing and we have to try and give him these experiences in some satisfying ways so that he finds the real child in himself who can say 'I can do it.' His tricycle can convince him that he can move ; rings and ropes on a cot can take a baby on a shunting engine to Tipperary, and the boy in his bed can find paths to far countries in golden gleams of imagination and the means of reaching his wigwam by turning the pages of his book.

It is not for us to pile gifts into his arms and expect him to create his own child world but to get to know the real small boy who is playing and hiding and find the little things that matter to that growing life. Let us remember that if we take a child of three years old to the gates of a beautiful garden, he is not likely to take our hands and admire the herbaceous border, but to bend down and pick up stones in the gravel once he has noted in one quick look that there is plenty of room and exciting places to explore. He does not wish to count the stones or match the shapes but just to collect them in his pocket. He is three years old and that is the right thing to do ! Our little boy does not want to be kept busy with good works but to be tuned in to the music which he heard, the rustling of children hiding at play, the flight of bees captured in notes of music and to feel that he belongs to the company of children who know that there is laughter, life and hope of new gaieties tomorrow.

ANNE M. MATHAMS,

Head of a Nursery School for Spastic Children.

THIS DOCTOR BECAME AN EDUCATIONIST

by a Montessorian

Being extracts from a forthcoming booklet entitled 'The Clash'

THE so-called 'Montessori method' would never have existed had it not been that children under certain conditions are found to do certain things. In Montessori's own writings, this is the recurrent theme. There is always a note of surprise.

'No one made them do it. All I did was to offer them so-and-so, and look what happened !' This is the gist of her narrative. Constantly she uses the phrase 'profound revelations'. The children have 'revealed themselves' as serious unwearying workers. The force comes from within. What she has done is to study the conditions under which it can manifest itself . . .

All that is in accordance with medical doctrine, and in Montessori we have in the first place a doctor of medicine who turned her mind (directly and not incidentally) to the problems of classroom education. In the process of healing, the doctor really does nothing except arrange conditions most favourable to the work of nature. For, about life there is something orderly, something obedient to rule ; so much so, that healing always occurs when obstacles have been removed.

Her discoveries went on to show that in children's lives, too, there is this order. Living things never betray. The phenomena she noted have turned out to be extraordinarily universal ; they do not occur one day and not the next, here in this part of the world and not in the other. The only thing that radically changes them is the child's age ; but for all children of about the same age, it is possible to generalize and to predict with very great accuracy the enthusiasms they will show. Exceptions always prove to have a tangible cause, for example, ill-health or some tension in the psyche of a pathological order. And so it has come about that 'under given conditions' (that is always very important !) schools can be so transformed that the facts far transcend any of the traditional aims that educators used to set themselves.

Let us list a few. Universal reading and writing is a condition of modern democratic living. 'Still', says the very most modern of inspectors, 'there is no hurry. Any time will do provided the children can write before the age of nine.' What do the children say ? The chorus (as their

behaviour shows) is unanimous. 'We like to begin learning our letters well before four, and we can all read and write long before we are six.'

Specialists in mental health hold that even children in wealthy homes should be able to dress themselves before they are eight. The children's actions say 'To be dressed by someone else is a nightmare. We long to begin almost as soon as we can walk. By the age of four we can do it perfectly, and tie our hair-ribbons also.'

Most people, nowadays, have to do at least *some* housework, so we think it just as well for children before they leave school to be able to wash up, sweep, dust and tidy, without breaking things. In domestic science courses, we also teach them how to cook, go shopping and keep accounts. The observed behaviour of children says, 'What causes us the utmost pain and grief is not to be allowed to do these things when we are small. Grown-ups have the happiness of pouring water and sweeping, but if we try to do it they say we are naughty. Sweeping the floor is such fun that we are sorry when it is finished, and often we scatter the dust again, so as to make it last longer. Of course we can wash up, given a table low enough to do it at, and the more fragile the china the more careful we are not to break it.'

As for cooking, to the child under seven it is something sacred—like being in church !

'Well then', says the educator, 'what about doing sums and learning your tables ? You must be able to do long division at least up to seven figures.' The children's answer to this is to set themselves sums of seventy figures, and to learn their tables not merely up to ten times ten, but until all the products are a hundred.

Something like this has been happening in every field of culture : in geometry (where the Theorem of Pythagoras is now known by nine), in geography, history, music and so on. And these are not facts worked for ; they are not things aimed at. Indeed, they were thought to be impossible, so no one dared to aim at them. They are discoveries, discoveries of child-worth, of inward powers, surprising because hitherto unknown.

It is as though a mother bird were to have set

herself the problem of teaching her young to fly. 'This', she would say, 'is most important for his future. All depends on me, for if I fail our species itself will be imperilled. The responsibility, I feel, is almost too great to be borne! Therefore, I must prepare myself in every way. I must study ballistics, physiology (to get his breathing right), warn him of germs so that he will clean his feathers. Then I must beware of overstrain, see that he rests every few minutes . . .'

Under these conditions it is quite clear that the young bird would never learn to fly, but would remain a walker and a pecker of the earth, over-attached to his mother and at the same time filled with a blind hatred for which neither he nor she could account, but a hatred ever likely to burst out destructively in later life. Fortunately, nature—with a wisdom never to be too much admired—has withheld from the mother birds an intelligence so great as this, with the result that the young teach themselves to fly quite satisfactorily, the ground is left mainly for the wingless to walk upon, and each winged species survives without artificially induced emotional tensions: consequently at peace with itself.

But, were it not so, with what astonishment would the mothers, if forcibly restrained from teaching, observe that their offspring did all these things by themselves! Surely, it is a point worthy of notice that none of the animals of lower intelligence ever lines up its young, as though on parade, in order to teach them how to become adult. One does not see in the aquarium some super-fish confronted by a shoal of youngsters, to whom it is saying:

'All tails move! Right, left, right—I saw you giggling, Minnie—right, left, right . . .'

 Yet, if this were necessary, nature—which thinks of everything—would surely have seen to it!

Man alone does these things, the great 'Lord of Creation'. Nor is it without interest to note that wherever these 'methods of education' have spread and taken root, so that the young of whole populations are subjected to them throughout their formative years, there the perpetual scourge of war has become most formidable, there apathy and inertia have left the populace at the mercy of almost anyone with character enough to lead it, somewhere, anywhere, to never mind what. And the source of this leadership is clear enough, for those who still possess it have seldom been very long at school. Nothing in the Europe of

our day is more astonishing, as a large-scale social manifestation, than the almost total abdication of the erstwhile 'ruling classes': those who, with all their faults, upheld justice, resisted 'graft' and were the first to enlist against oppression. At the same time, this is the class which has 'put itself to school' more savagely and ruthlessly than any class has ever done before in the whole course of human history. Is it to be believed that between these two occurrences there is no causal connection?

Providing Conditions

So it appears that birds fly without being taught, and children can learn without being made to learn. But, as we have stressed already, both these facts depend upon conditions. Little birds are brought down in a hurricane; they do need a mother's love, the confidence of a nest to return to; for flying practice the day must be tranquil, the air free from hostile marauders.

No doubt the provision of conditions suitable for a child who is to become a man inheriting the civilization we have made, is not a simple matter. There is the danger of neglect, of failure to hand over our full heritage. Above all, it is necessary to follow the laws of growth, so that the things which are genuinely easier come first. The conquest of these paves the way for those genuinely more difficult. But this, in principle, does not differ from similar laws which to-day govern children's diet. What proves hard for the educator to believe is that the provision of suitable conditions is not an arbitrary act, but an act of obedience. Just as the doctor can only find the right conditions for healing as a result of study, so it is with the educator. The needs of nature are not self-evident; they are mysterious and have to be sought. The secrets of the mind are profound and not on view to everyone.

That is why, when one of these has been discovered, the device which results has sometimes a most bizarre and peculiar appearance to the average adult mind. It happens, for example, that objects designed to 'test' a power are often seized upon by children as means for developing that power. What can look less appetizing (to us) than a row of wooden cylinders diminishing in size, like a box of weights, useless to man or beast except as a puzzle, for when they are removed from their sockets in a block of wood, then it is a job to get them back? Yet this

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This little girl, aged 5 years 2 months, has not yet begun to learn to read. She is practising left to right hand and eye movements as part of a pre-reading training given through the two "Getting ready for reading" picture books.

How to Judge Individual Readiness

(A Teachers' Questionnaire, Chapter Four of the valuable *Teachers' Manual*, will help teachers to judge when each pupil is ready to begin reading. A list of headings under which the questions are arranged is given below).

Physical Readiness.

1. Eyes. 2. Ears. 3. Speech. 4. Hand-Eye Co-ordination. 5. General Health.

Social Readiness.

1. Co-operation. 2. Sharing. 3. Self-reliance. 4. Good Listening. 5. General.

Emotional Readiness.

1. Adjustment to Task. 2. Poise.

Psychological Readiness.

1. Mind-Set for Reading. 2. Mental Maturity. 3. Mental Habits. 4. Language.

puzzle so fascinates children of three that to do it successfully over and over again, literally dozens of times a day, is a normal phase of development to be expected as confidently in the normal unfolding of psychic life as the cutting of teeth in the physical.

To the child, the practice this gives him in looking and comparing is evidently vital. Every aspect of his demeanour shows it. He does it eagerly, as eagerly as he learns to walk. At first, a child walks for walking's sake. Only later does he walk to get somewhere . . .

The games that children invent often show one or more difficult elements, and in the current belief that play is itself educational there is this modicum of truth. But take out the difficult element and provide specially for its practice, and we see an educational activity performed in its own right. The fantasy of the game was a wrapping, an excuse, which can now be dispensed with. Thus, imaginative games of 'house' usually involve a little house-work, and when that house-work is provided *per se* the pretence house vanishes and real work about the real house takes its place. All that is needed is to have suitable utensils, which must be small to suit the child's size. Yet not so small that they become doll's size, and therefore not serious.

It is clear that the discoveries of which we have spoken can only be made when such suitable means are provided. A child's developmental activities cannot take place in a vacuum. We might imagine an adult who has it in him to become a great chef, but this will not appear unless he has access to a kitchen. At the same time, the kitchen acts as a magnet to such a man. He gravitates there as an artist to a picture gallery or a musician to a concert hall. If this is true for adults with special gifts, it is equally true for children whose gifts are still unspecialized, but who have in themselves potentialities for development just as strong.

By providing means, therefore—on a trial and error basis—the educator can probe these gifts, for when he guesses right he sees an instant reaction. Such trials are for him a kind of scalpel of research; they reveal the hidden tendencies of the child psyche. Not by sitting still and offering nothing can we conduct this research; an empty room, a room equipped with plastic materials, evokes the child's true aptitudes in very limited degree. We have to ask him what

he wants—not in words, but by offering things—and the things he really does want are quite surprisingly detailed and complex.

The predilection for test-material, which Dr. Montessori early discovered, leads inevitably to precise gradations, to pairs of stimuli, colours, musical notes, touch-boards and what not, which must be accurately made to be effective, that is to say, interesting. This gives an appearance of high formality, but it is not an imposed formality forced upon the children and deriving from adult standards. The adult, in fact, does not tend to reason like this at all. It is rather that the children are imposing their views on an adult world extremely reluctant to grant them. This taste for precision surprises and sometimes shocks the adult, especially when he approaches the educational problem with a prejudice derived from some other source. The psycho-analysts, for example, show a definite resistance to the idea of order and precision in the child's environment, and this attitude—having transmitted itself to the inspectorate—is becoming so widespread as to offer real impediment to the acceptance of Dr. Montessori's ideas, or (to express it better) the utilization of her discoveries in the schools . . .

The 'Free Activity' Schools

Any scientific technique for the study of pedagogy has an independent right to exist, quite apart from other techniques already functioning for the study of mind. There is no reason why the findings of the latter should be allowed to trammel the courses which the former finds it useful to pursue. Yet, when the psycho-therapist turns his attention to education, his main concern is . . . with the emotional life, and the royal road to understanding this, in each individual child, is, as everyone knows, the fantasy life of that child. The psycho-analyst, turned educator, therefore wants to see in the class, above all else, opportunities for the child's fantasy life to disclose itself. For this reason, he—or, more often, it is she—views with scant favour any piece of educational apparatus designed for a set purpose; and the more precisely it serves that purpose, and the more (in consequence) it is unfitted for any other purpose, the greater will be its abhorrence to this type of mind.

That is the real reason why, in the 'free activity schools', to-day enjoying so great a vogue, much store is set upon the child's freedom of action,

but the objects placed at his disposal are as plastic as possible, formless and adaptable, yet limited; by which I mean that there are many ends the children wish to reach that these things cannot be made to serve. The great standbys, of course, are the sand-heap and water-trough; then come bits of wood and nails, plenty of powder paint, ample sheets of paper on which to spread it, and plasticine.

But, although in a course of therapeutic treatment, it is of the utmost value for the child's fantasy life to stand revealed, the school is not primarily a place for therapeutic treatment, and over-emphasis on the diagnostic aspect of fantasy can undo the school's value to the child as a place for study. It imposes limitations under which even the most equilibrated of children cannot, if they would, go directly towards the culture of their day. Here are no numbers, no letters of the alphabet, and if—as in some of the free-activity schools—these do exist, there is nothing to give the preliminary practice in looking, comparing and moving, necessary to make them easy. That which ordains this limitation is not an effort made faithfully to follow indications of preference given by normal children, but it is a prejudice (albeit a scientific prejudice) acting actually in defiance of these indications.

'Free activity' teachers, meanwhile, are trained very well to be observers and guardians, and would, if the prejudice could be overcome, immediately see for themselves the far deeper reactions which children show to objects specially designed to act as introducers to all the main features of the culture into which they are born. To-day's activity school is a Montessori school without the educational apparatus that the children have, in a sense, chosen and designed themselves, by the simple process of saying 'Yes' or 'No' to a variety of things offered. But it might, at any moment, remake for itself Dr. Montessori's fundamental discoveries, and then we should see in it a development not far removed from hers, or—more likely—an actual seizing by the teachers on that which she has done.

The Analysis of Difficulties

How can I be so sure of that? It is an interesting point. It is because, directly one begins to analyse our culture into its parts (from the point of view of the actual difficulties which they present to a developing 'body-mind') one is

bound to come to the same conclusions. But—leaving aside the obvious fact that things made for the same purpose: spoons, punching-bags, clinical thermometers, etc., always do tend to be alike—a word needs to be said about this particular kind of analysis, which has led to a new and very important educational concept. A happy illustration will serve of Dr. Montessori's own. Watching a defective girl trying to darn a stocking with needle and wool, she saw that the movements were easy to her, but that the child had failed to understand how to interweave the threads alternately. Dr. Montessori's solution was to provide some paper-cutting material and to show how strips of one colour can be interwoven with cross-strips of another colour, to make a little chequer-board mat. This had the effect of 'isolating the difficulty', since the child no longer had to cope simultaneously with the muscular problems of controlling her needle and thread. Once she had understood (for hers was a mental difficulty) she returned to her darning and found it easy enough.

The general theory of separating difficulties has long been applied in the field of sport, where 'coaching' by an expert really consists in the independent perfecting of each part of a complicated activity. Thus, the cricketer has batting practice in the nets, interspersed with catching practice and fielding practice. The *maestro* in a fencing academy does not just tell his pupil to lunge. He says 'Extend your arm', and then he walks all round the pupil, who is still holding this frozen position, and when fully satisfied, he says 'Lunge', after which he makes another full and detailed survey.

Now, the point I would like to make is this, that different people, when they analyse (from this point of view) the same movement, are just as much bound to come to similar results as chemists are bound to do when asked to analyse the same compound substance. It is not a question of taste, or personal preference. One specialized activity only has one set of parts, and there are no two two's about it. Coaching at games has become an exact science in which, if one expert excels another, the news spreads, for the right answer has something compelling about it which everyone takes up. Learn your rowing anywhere, and you can take your place in a boat at Oslo as easily as on the Thames.

In medicine, the same thing happens. One

country, or one hospital, may get ahead, but directly experience has proved the value of a new technique, all others seize upon it; with the result that the science and art of healing is not a ramifying and diversified one, but is everywhere the same. Patients insist upon this. It is a duty of the local hospital to keep up to date.

This may prepare our minds for the somewhat serious shock (as it was, and is, to many) of finding that the kind of analysis of which I am speaking leads to unity in the schools. Not only does that horrify the psycho-analyst . . . but the ordinary educator . . . is unable to adjust to the idea that whereas methods in pursuit of an aim can be altered indefinitely, the same thing does not operate when what the school is trying to do is to supply the child with ideal conditions for his own conquest of culture.

This involves a scientific study of the child in his relation to the culture to be acquired, and the thing boils down to an analysis of the difficulties he encounters on his way. These difficulties are neither dependent entirely on the culture, nor entirely on the child (his powers, their degree of development, their order of development, etc.), but they are dependent on both, each interacting with the other. Yet the point is that both these interacting things, that is to say, the child and our culture, are absolutes; they are not variable entities but each is precise in its content and kind. The resulting analysis cannot therefore be diversified, but must tend towards an absolute perfection . . .

This is where the collision is felt upon a pre-conceived system of ideas. So long as Dr. Montessori's work could be received upon a plane of new ideals in education, all was well. An immense amount of flag-waving and cheering took place—runners from all sides could accompany her chariot. But directly she said, 'My apparatus has been precisely determined. Please don't imagine that other things will do equally well', all this fell away, and unavoidably so. Dr. Montessori was thinking, as a doctor does, of conditions suitable for life. But educators, when they spoke of new ideals, were really thinking of improved (or less harmful) methods, and this is abundantly proved by the fact that many said it would not matter if this resulted in a lowering of the aims.

Between these two starting-points—'absolute presuppositions'—there is evidently no common

★ HARRAP ★

MUSIC, MOVEMENT AND THE YOUNG CHILD

Teachers of young children will particularly welcome this book, in which music is treated as an essential part of education. Close attention is paid to every aspect of movement—gesture, attitude and rhythm—for both individuals and groups. Apart from her musical qualifications, the author holds a London Certificate in Dalcroze Eurhythmics. "The book is tightly packed with help and advice, with diagrams and examples and suggestions. The emphasis is on what children can *do*, and the reader is provided with a wealth of ideas in a continuous flow."—*Teachers World*. 17s. 6d. net.

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ground. For, unless it be clearly understood that any effort to make 'ideal conditions of life' must lead of necessity to a fixing of those conditions—yet a fixing not personal but dictated by the laws of life themselves—the claim to have 'determined something' looks like a monstrous piece of vanity, an arbitrary claim to the possession of final truth on a purely personal basis of assumed superiority to others. Naturally, this is resented, and the resentment in this case can lead . . . to an almost defiant multiplication of 'systems', which, not being informed by the same basic idea, are often as much cut off from it as houses are from the growth of a tree (the force of this parallel being that a house can be changed arbitrarily, while a tree cannot).

Edmond Holmes, one of the first enthusiasts for Dr. Montessori's work, parted company with her on this point. 'The important thing', he said, 'about any educational system, is its principle. But the working out of that principle (by which he meant the apparatus) must be left to the teacher.' This, to Dr. Montessori, was as extraordinary as if one were to say, 'The important thing in treating illness is to hold the view that

health is a good thing. But the application of this principle must be left to the nurse !'

But neither Dr. Montessori nor Edmond Holmes (and I knew them both at the time and discussed this point with both) were aware that what really divided them was a divergence in their fundamental positions, which neither had thought it necessary to state. I also did not see this at the time. It has come at me with the fulness of the years.

Apropos of the shoulder-shrugging which Freudians adopted towards psychologists, it is interesting to note that Dr. Montessori reacted to the Holmes's of the educational world, of whom there were just as many, in exactly the same way. Refusing to be drawn into the uselessness of what she called 'polemics', she ignored all criticisms and went on with her research. But polemics are useless only when they are false. To understand the real source of a divergence is a help. Hence I make bold to publish this bit of polemics, believing it to be true.

Quite apart from polemics, the facts are that children are living organisms, and every species of living organism differs from the dead disorderly

material from which it springs (and to which it returns after death) by the very fact of the orderly way in which it is composed, and by the absolute regularity of the laws which it obeys. The conditions of life needed by such organisms are fixed by those laws.

It is also a fact that culture is fixed. It may change with the centuries, but that which awaits any generation of children is fixed relatively to them. Writing and reading, for example ; the spelling of the mother tongue ; the art-world, demanding for its appreciation a refined perception of colour and form ; number ; geography ; history ; the content of all these things is fixed. So we have to build a bridge, or many bridges—between a fixed thing, culture, and this other fixed thing, the child, which although alive is nevertheless regular in its mode of existence and reactions. There is not room for a great deal of variation in the manner and form of these bridges. If practice be needed to discriminate between colours of finer and finer degree, we need permanently coloured surfaces of a number and size adequate, and this turns out in practice to be much limited by the colouring materials available. If wound silk is brighter, and found to be more attractive, than wool or paint, this gives the preference to wound silk. Wooden spools are more lasting than cardboard. The size of the coloured areas can be too large or too small. So that progress in fitting the apparatus to children's needs is one of approximating ever more closely to a kind of optimum not conditioned by the experimenter, but by facts external to him, which pre-exist.

Another point of immense importance is that when we are seeking no longer to teach something, that is to say, to make the child learn something that we desire him to learn, but to find, make or perfect something, which will appeal to him as the saucer of cream attracts the cat, this imposes on our device a great many more conditions to which it must conform. And the more conditions any given device has to fill, the closer are the limits within which it can be designed. The colour spools, for example, must be such that the child himself can handle them and test himself with them. Again, each exercise must be in itself sufficiently complex not to be boring, but at the same time its degree of complexity should be adaptable, so that a smaller child can have his objective simplified for the

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time being, and older ones have theirs amplified.

In this fashion, degrees of difficulty can be made to accompany development, first of all by the teacher, when making a guess at the child's level, and then by the child himself, who likes to climb ever higher, but—once he has attained to a certain inward harmony—can feel his limitations and prefers to remain within them. Thus, to pair two couples will be easier than to pair three, and to grade a series of slightly differing shades will be harder than pairing couples which differ strongly from one another. Grading two series of shades will be harder still, and to grade all the series provided will be a *tour de force* needing the combined work, perhaps, of several companions.

From the child's point of view each exercise has its own objective and is therefore self-contained in a psychological sense. He does not see it as a part of his future ability to paint—a thing the teacher may see very clearly—but he sees it as an interesting and attractive puzzle, interesting in itself.

It would be difficult to imagine any device simpler, and yet conforming to all these requirements, than the two sets of coloured tablets which, in virtue of their efficacy, hold a treasured place in all Montessori schools. The first set comprises eleven pairs corresponding to the colours for which language provides distinct names—black, yellow, blue, etc. The second has nine gradations with seven shades in each.

When an apparatus like this has been devised, and when, offered to (not thrust upon) children, it evokes in them an orderly and educational activity of intense interest, which all children are found to enjoy and invariably repeat from stage one to the *ultima thule*, which serves also for various memory games and collective games, which I have not here described, but which prove to have an equal attraction; then it is fair to regard this as a position won in the battle of experimentation. Random changes are not likely to be for the better; they are almost sure to be for the worse. As Dr. Montessori says, 'When all is in flux, it is a positive achievement to have settled something.' And no one will dispute this who realizes the difficulty. At the same time no one is resisting true progress. Some material of the future may displace wood, another prove superior to silk, and so forth.

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It is the same with number. A prime difficulty is to build in the child's mind a correct concept, and failure to do so will leave him apathetic, uninterested. The dull, or very young, child will see each of a group of counters as 'a counter'. To have him call these things, one, two, three, four, etc., is to him as if we should suddenly call a haystack a brick, two haystacks a cat, three haystacks a cow, etc. The rule of one name for one thing, which he has learnt very early, is here being broken; and insistence by the teacher, far from making clear to him the 'twoness' of a group of two, the 'threeness' of a group of three, which to us is so clear, may reduce him to hysteria.

We are, indeed, asking him to name not the things themselves, but a particular aspect of the group, which may escape his notice, for little children find it much harder to focus on aspects of things than they do on the things themselves. The fact that the intelligent child compensates

for our bad teaching, understands in spite of us, is beside the point. What we want is a clarification that enables the dull as well as the bright child to start mounting the arithmetical ladder. The fact that the agile can mount a horse from the ground does not diminish the value of a block for others. Séguin it was who first overcame this difficulty. He made rods of different lengths, each so many times longer than the first, and painted the alternate units in two contrasting colours. This made each rod into a *different object*, and the dull child found no difficulty in calling each by a different name: one, two, three, etc. Repetition matured the idea, and the symbolic figures were added. Later, the child found it quite easy to transfer the whole notion to groups.

I have included this illustration because it is one of the most brilliant triumphs in the history of what might well be called 'analytical pedagogy'. And it shows both the kind of difficulty which that science confronts, and the fixity of any solution which works, that is to say, the changeless factors which bear upon, or dictate, such solution. When we add to these factors the other requirements of general class-room practice, namely, that the child himself shall be able to handle the material, repeat test exercises with it, etc., it becomes clear that size will be important, and that to the very small child the differences in length must be great enough to present no additional problems in themselves. To use the metre length for the longest, to have ten of them, and make the shortest a decimetre, links it up with continental measures which are also the universal measures for science, and these features being about right psychologically (speaking of complexity and visibility of difference), there seems no reason to suppose that Dr. Montessori's set can be improved upon very easily.

Each pedagogical requirement, in short, represents a rather difficult problem, which is well beyond the capacity of unprepared people to solve. But, as with the bow-and-arrow, or the bicycle, the solver of the problem confers a permanent boon upon all. Progress of high importance takes place with every solution, and one does not lightly discard such conquests. The history of science, the history of engineering, the history of medicine, is full of them. Few are wholly personal, as works of art are personal,

but they are resultants proceeding out of requirements in relation to conditions, and although first made by a person, they reflect those requirements and those conditions so well that if this person had not been the first, it seems almost certain that someone else would, sooner or later, have done the same. They become, then, impersonal.

The 'learner's difficulties' are, as it were, a new field open to the discoverer, or the inventor, as the case may be. Séguin, to whom Dr. Montessori rightly makes so many acknowledgements, was the first to discover many of these difficulties normally hidden from the adult mind, and the mere fact of their existence was a revelation to pedagogy, since neither the laboratory, nor the consulting room, nor even the deviser of mental tests, has any instruments for bringing them to light. It is true that an 'emotional tie-up' can prevent a child from understanding something, but failure to understand can also be the starting-point of an emotional tangle of great severity.

The psychology of cognition, then, makes its own demands upon research, and as the school is the place where learner's problems are under daily scrutiny, this would seem to be the natural *locale* wherein such research can be conducted. By using Montessori's technique, it can be done under controlled conditions, for the teacher-child relationship operates therein with minimum emotional stress, and the rule of 'offering without insisting' provides a firm basis for standardized treatment. Moreover, the free child's reaction provides an unfailing check upon success, for devices will only prove attractive when they really do meet difficulties.

Experience, under Montessori's brilliant pioneering impetus, is proving that in every field the needed adaptations can be made to render the highest forms of culture accessible to the child, who then surprises by the rapidity and enthusiasm with which he imbibes it. Truly, children, whose biological duty it is to replace the old generation, seem to be filled with an impulse to do that very thing. Like the young prince of historical legend caught in the act of trying-on his dying father's crown, the children are preparing to replace us, and as soon as possible !

But this is a phenomenon brought to light only in specific ways: it is a living fact, and living facts do not reveal themselves *in vacuo*. Not only must the material conditions be apposite, ap-

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proaching as improved, ever nearer to an optimum, but the relationships between the child and his adult protector must also be 'just so', and approach in their turn to an ideal form, in which the child's life flourishes in maximum degree.

The Teacher-Child Relationship

The teacher's way of treating the child is therefore part of the conditions which have to be studied. No more than the educational apparatus can this be left to chance. Having been perfected by scientific research, it can serve as a model for all those, including parents, who have charge of children.

'Someone in charge' can never be banished from the nursery scene. The child abandoned is even more unhappy than the child maltreated. Children are dependent creatures; they are not free, but terrified, when alone. Without his attendant adult the child is unprotected, would go unfed, and is unable to cope with life. Perhaps for that very reason they know how to awaken in adults a protective love, and in this radiance

alone do they feel secure, for it prompts to an activity as vital to them as the sun's rays, the air they breathe, or the food they eat. These two, child and adult together, form the 'biological unit'. 'The child' may figure in abstract thought, but in the world of reality he could not exist.

But the child's treatment by his attendant adult is another matter. It can vary enormously. Often it oscillates violently between the extremes of harshness and over-indulgence. Some children receive too many commands, others too few; some have everything done for them, others nothing. It may well be that the surprises the child has in store for us cannot be seen at any of these extremes. Hence, if we wish them to appear, it may become necessary to fix very closely the limits within which the adult's behaviour towards the child (and the inward attitude that dictates that behaviour) must lie.

'Only', we may say, 'if the adult behaves thus and thus, can the child be seen as he really is.' The adult, in short, must be trained, and this training corresponds to the discipline which every scientist has to impose upon himself in order to make the smallest progress in his science.

What a curiously different way of thinking has Montessori started! No wonder she is little understood; no wonder her following is small, so far. How easy to understand the criticisms, how easy to sympathise with the critics.

'What?' I often hear it said. 'Fix the objects the child is given? Tie the teacher down to behaving in this way, or in that? Why, we are all being invited into slavery!'

Yet directly we examine the other sciences, we find exactly the same thing. No research worker is free, in the sense of being able to behave arbitrarily. Every research worker is successful in proportion to his exactitude, to his obedience to exigencies which are not of his making, but which proceed from the situation itself, from the material into which he is investigating. Let him break the rules, and he loses his thread. The path to discovery is one filled with regulations. The test-tube must be clean, the scalpel sharp, the hand steady.

Not that this means the teacher's action has to be harsh, mechanical, inelastic. Her task, in fact, is to give the last delicate adjustment which makes the treatment suit the individual patient *with exactness*. Her humanity has to humanize all. And this is what the teacher does in a good Montessori school. 'In the manner and mode of her intervention', says Montessori, 'there lies room for a great art.'

Art, which is an act of judgement, is something which no science can dictate. It acts as a kind of cushion between the individual and the general sweep of the laws which all must obey. I find it helpful, myself, to think of the teacher's art under the following imagery. She has, really, to make a harmonious blend of three separate arts. One is the art of teaching; another the art of observing (which has to be done not exactly from a concealed position, but at least without making the child aware that he is being watched); while the third is the art of protection, of making provision for the child's needs, until, as time goes on, he becomes able to fend for himself. Morals, and the teaching of morals, really appertains to the field of protection, for all ethical rules and moral laws, all *tabus*, are, in origin, defensive, or intended to be defensive, of the individual or of his community and its ideals.

At first the whole burden of this kind of defence is taken by 'the child's adult', the person in charge of him; and the natural bond of attach-

ment, or love, which the child feels for this person, makes it easy for him to learn and to accept the moral code to which that person clings, and this quite apart from whether that code be the best and most perfect of defences.

All this, I think of as a 'guardianship' function, carried out (usually) without reflection, and certainly as a matter of commonsense obligation, by the child's attendant adult. It forms a central, and over-riding, group of duties which can never be dismissed from the scene.

The other two arts, that of teaching and of observation, are really in opposition and have to be kept in balance, one against the other. The teacher's danger is to over-teach; the observer's danger is to under-teach. To take a keen interest in observing is to safeguard one's self from over-teaching. I mean, one stops directing the child incessantly, without ever leaving him alone to work on by himself. On the other hand, observation shows when a child has reached the end of a phase, and needs a new lesson; so this preserves one from teaching too little. The ideal equilibrium is reached when the two are used to balance one another. For too much teaching bothers a child; puts a strain upon the relationship of calm that should reign between him and his adult. Too much observation leaves him stranded with not enough to do, and this engenders another kind of strain, for he starts bothering the adult.

So the teacher-child relationship cannot be varied in arbitrary fashion, any more than the nurse-patient relationship can be allowed to vary, or the doctor-patient relationship, either. Of such vital relations, in fact, is the fabric of civilized life composed, and on the perfection of their form stands the mental health of civilized societies.

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THE CAUSES OF SCHOOL BACKWARDNESS

Jane Darroch, Educational Psychologist at the Davidson Clinic, Edinburgh.

MOST teachers nowadays understand the difference between the child who is dull, and will never be able to do very advanced work because of his lack of natural ability, and the child who is backward in the sense that he does not do the work of which he is really capable. Most teachers also want to help the child who is backward in this latter sense, and feel that they ought to be able to do so, yet when they try they are often baffled. Classes are so large that it is difficult to give attention to the individual, and the pressure of examinations often compels them to give the most attention to the most promising pupils. The backward child is sometimes abnormally naughty as well, and whether he is naughty or not, his difficulty is often a deep-seated one that springs from his earliest experiences and the inter-relationships of people in his family, and can only be dealt with by a skilled helper who sees him individually. Such a child is given his best chance of improvement where there is co-operation between the psychological clinic and the school, the clinic providing individual play therapy and perhaps also coaching for the child, and the school providing conditions in which demands are related to the child's stage of development and helping the therapist by discussing the child.

An apparently intellectual difficulty, such as inability to do arithmetic, may spring from a secret disharmony between the parents, which can be touched upon only by someone who is able to see the child privately at frequent intervals. William, for example, was referred to the Davidson Clinic by his parents at the age of ten because he could not do arithmetic. He made a terrible fuss about his arithmetic homework and had both parents helping him. I found out from his teacher that he was also very naughty in school, always playing the fool to get attention, throwing paper balls, deliberately making silly mistakes. William used to boast to me about getting the strap, and said it did not hurt much, but I think he was more afraid than he pretended.

He told me that he had been able to do arithmetic in the Infant Department, but that the teacher got married and his mother took him to the wedding, and he got so excited that he fell off a wall on to his head and had never been able

to do arithmetic since. This odd story contained the fear that the teacher was going to be cruelly treated by her husband, and that men in general were cruel to women, so that it was bad to be a boy. Both the fall and the weakness in arithmetic were attempts to punish himself for his masculinity and to give it up.

William's father was a mild and passive man, who was often ill and had been exempted from military service on medical grounds. His mother, who had been very much afraid of her own father, admitted that she married him 'because she couldn't be doing with anyone energetic'. There was no open disharmony, but there is little doubt that William's mother dominated his father and that he secretly resented it and felt inferior. In addition the mother had found childbirth so painful that she would not have any more children, which added to William's feeling that men make women suffer. Also his mother would have preferred a girl as she thought them 'easier'.

William's central difficulty in arithmetic was with division sums, and it turned out that there were associated in his mind with cutting people up. He drew a picture of a German airman baling out into the sea and said he was going to be cut to pieces by the propellor of a ship. His division sums improved a good deal after the drawing was interpreted. For a long time after this we talked in a general way about the cruel bit in him, and I tried to spare him the knowledge that it was particularly his mother to whom he wished to be cruel. However, his work and behaviour remained bad, and a climax was reached one day when he was kept in during break to do some sums over again, had a pain and slipped away home without permission, causing some alarm by his disappearance. I saw the teacher after this and she said she was worn out trying to cope with him. So after that I told him that he wanted to hurt his mother, and related the school difficulty to this, and he passed through a stormy period for about a month and then improved very much.

Michael, who was twelve when his parents brought him to the Clinic, is practically always at the bottom of the class in every subject, and untidy and disorderly. His I.Q. is 109 and he attends a fee-paying secondary school. The

masters seem to have given him up in despair, as no punishment has any effect, and he says he wishes he was afraid of them, as it would make him do some work, but he is not. The atmosphere of Michael's home is healthier than that of William's, as his parents quarrel openly, but they quarrel very badly. His father is a basically sound man but with a violent and hasty temper, and his mother is neurotic and full of fears. She, too, is particularly afraid of childbirth. Michael seems to have two difficulties. At a more superficial level he was afraid of growing up because to be a man meant to be bad-tempered like father. When this was interpreted he increased in self-confidence and ability to stand up for himself, but remained bad at lessons. The root cause of his bad work seems to be a fear of obeying the teachers because to obey is to be weak, passive, and so get hurt and frightened like mother.

In coaching children one notices a constant interaction between the intellectual difficulties in a subject, which are roughly the same for all children, and the emotional difficulties that are much more individual. William had a specific difficulty with division, but all children find long division one of the hardest kinds of sum. Most children find it particularly hard to divide by the numbers from 13 to 19, where the guessed quotient is so very far wrong, and much easier to divide by numbers such as 21, where the guessed quotient is right. Reduction of *avoir-dupois* is troublesome to the duller children because of the dividing by 14 and 16. At the same time, children make particular mistakes because of particular associations. A little girl put down 24 by mistake for another number because she was excited about going away on Christmas Eve. A boy put down 18 by mistake for 81. I asked if anything special happened when you are 18 and he said: 'Yes. You get a licence for a motor bicycle.'

Nearly all children find the middle part of the multiplication table the hardest to learn because they get discouraged, and have not yet had the ten times table to cheer them up. When, however, a highly intelligent boy of thirteen still could not learn to multiply seven by eight and eight by eight, I asked if anything special had happened when he was eight years old. He said he had had a badly poisoned knee and had put his finger into the hole and touched the bone, though his mother had told him not to.

It is an accepted principle nowadays that children learn to read best when the early reading material is interesting to them. For the majority of children this is achieved by a wise choice of books and other material on the part of the Infant Mistress, and many of the modern books are exceedingly attractive. A few very walled off, or timid, or rebellious children can only begin if given individual tuition with material specially chosen for them. These very difficult children often seem more willing to write than to read, perhaps because wielding a pencil gives a sense of power, and can be taught first to write their own names, and 'Mummy', 'Daddy', and names of brothers and sisters and friends. It is, however, wise to try to combine this with sounding the alphabet and writing a few simple phonic words.

A particularly difficult problem from the point of view of everyone who has to deal with him is the child who is so deeply disturbed that it is impossible to test his intelligence reliably. A sprinkling of children are labelled as mentally defective when the real difficulty is emotional; on the other hand some genuine mental defectives have emotional problems as well.

Harold, who was brought to the Clinic at the age of nine, is at a special school for mental defectives. His mother said she recognised that he was defective but thought that he could nevertheless be helped in some way. His I.Q. on the Terman-Merrill Revision of the Binet Scale was 56, and his school work seemed to be on the level one would expect from this, but I felt that the I.Q. was not a true one, because he was unable to speak except to repeat the last few words that had been said to him, and was very strange in his behaviour. When asked to come with me he began to follow another person by mistake. A little later I gave him the Drever and Collins Test, and he made a score of 49½, which suggests an I.Q. between 85 and 90. He has had a year and a half of play therapy, and can speak well enough now to express his meaning, though in a very disjointed manner. I have not so far attempted coaching, as he is still very walled off, but the school reports that his work has improved, and he has begun to read spontaneously all the notices in the Clinic and the names on the doors! He puzzles out quite hard words by phonic analysis, and it seems as if steady work put in by his teacher over a long period has suddenly borne a great deal of fruit.

Harold was blown out of his mother's lap by a bomb when he was a baby, and acts this experience over in play. His mother is a cold, correct person, who tries most conscientiously to do the right thing, but does not seem ever to have made a real feeling relationship with Harold, and so has not been able to help him to assimilate his bad experiences, as a more natural and spontaneous woman would have done. His father goes out a great deal with his men friends and leaves his mother at home, which suggests that the marriage is not too happy, and which means that it is hard for Harold to make a relationship with his father either.

Jean, aged six and three quarters, is another child who cannot be accurately tested. She has been at school since she was five, but an excellent infant mistress has been practically unable to teach her anything. Even when she is coached individually she is either so stubborn or so absent-minded that it is difficult to make any impression. If she does anything well once, she seems to have a compulsion to do it very badly the next time. Sometimes she gazes out of the window and makes faces, as if trying to drive

away imaginary enemies. Her I.Q. has been taken twice and came out both times at 71, but she was so stubborn and inattentive that we doubt whether this is a true result. Jean's father was divorced for cruelty when she was two and a half. Her mother thought she was too young to understand or remember, and has never spoke to her about it, but in fact she misses her father very much and resents his disappearance, and at the same time feels that she has to take his place by the only method known to her, namely, by being as violent as he.

At the other extreme there are children whose difficulties with lessons are almost entirely due to broken schooling and hardly at all to an emotional problem. Such a one was Jock, who was referred to the Clinic by his parents at the age of twelve for backwardness in arithmetic and spelling. His I.Q. on the Terman-Merrill Revision of the Binet Scale was 121, but in the group test which forms part of the Qualifying Examination it was 94, and he did poorly in the English and arithmetic papers too. So he was placed in the C stream of a Junior Secondary school. Jock certainly suffered an emotional shock at the age

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of five, when first his mother was seriously ill and had to leave him with his grandmother, and before she came back for him his father was reported missing, believed killed. This changed him from an adventurous little boy into a rather goody-goody one. His excessive goodness, which survived his father's safe return, yielded to a short course of play therapy, and it became apparent that the real reason why he was backward was because he had changed his elementary school a number of times. He became thoroughly confused about the basic processes in arithmetic—for example, he did not know the twelve times table, and had obviously had little practice in short division. He had slipped into being a careless writer and speller. He was moved into the A stream, and the headmaster and the class teachers took a special interest in his case. He did well in all the subjects, such as science, mathematics and technical drawing, which he started from the beginning at this time, but the Clinic had to help him with intensive coaching

in the basic subjects. He also changed from wanting to become a clergyman to wanting to join the R.A.F., a career much more suited to his adventurous nature, and his headmaster was most helpful with advice on different methods of getting into the R.A.F., a subject on which he had more knowledge than the Clinic staff.

The rôle of the school and of the psychological clinic are thus complementary, and their respective contributions will be different in different children.

Jock could have been helped nearly as well by a teacher as by a trained psychologist, if only any teacher could have spared enough time. Jean and Harold could be helped only by someone with a high degree of psychological skill. Wherever the difficulty is in the main an emotional one, it is unwise for the teacher to probe it. Probing is apt to arouse a powerful combination of love and hate—indeed this must be aroused if the child is to be really healed—and these strong feelings can be dealt with only in privacy.

THE ARTIST IN EVERY YOUNG CHILD

J. M. Aitkenhead, Headmaster of Kilquhanity House, Scotland

THE past ten years has seen a fair spate of writing about art for children. During all that time the children at Kilquhanity have been busy, practising artists. If art is good for children, these children should be good, getting better, or bad, getting good.

Not so very many years ago, in a small country school rejoicing in the lovely name of Tullygrawly, Cullybacky, a humble Irish schoolmaster realized how sad was the history of any artistic activity in the lives of his pupils; and in a book that ought to be more widely known,¹ he set it down somewhat as follows: 'From the time he can hold a pencil until he goes to school a child will draw with confidence everything he sees; dogs, people, rabbits, houses, horses. And his drawings are alive. From the time he goes to school until he leaves it he is asked to draw jars and boxes and bottles. And his drawings are dead. From the time he leaves school he never draws again.'

It is a long time since I read his book, but if I have not quoted Mr. Russell accurately I am sure I have given his idea correctly, and because he also sets down what he did or tried to do to remedy this state of affairs in his own small

province, I heartily recommend this small unpretentious book. And to anticipate my argument, I should say that the spirit of Russell's experiment is the *sine qua non* of successful art in schools, if one can talk of successful art. Personally, I should not, just as I would say you cannot teach art or be a teacher of art. You can only be enthusiastic about it and encourage children by providing the right atmosphere and good conditions.

Russell was not an artist or a trained art teacher. His children were destined to be plumbers or ploughmen, but he felt that the more they could be happy poets and painters as children, the better plumbers and ploughmen they would be—and the better persons.

The child is so responsive to encouragement and so impressionable that the last thing we should look for is uniformity of standard or performance. One day the work is slow, the next a drawing is turned out in a jiffy; but all the time the children are creators, their creations reflecting their moods and development.

Let them emulate the witch of Macbeth and do and do and do. 'Learn by doing', we remember. But let us remember the deeper meaning—

¹ *The Child and His Pencil* by R. L. Russell, Allen & Unwin, 1938.

not only learn mathematics by doing mathematics or woodwork by doing woodwork, but learn of yourself and all things just by 'doing'. Concentration, selection, co-operation, tolerance . . . all must come in if we do anything. If a child makes a drawing, makes a pot, moulds plasticine, weaves a mat, paints a picture, writes a poem, builds a castle, he cannot help doing and he cannot help learning. We have an old word in Scots which we apply especially to the poets of Scotland's richest age in poetry. They are called 'makars', and I think the word means makers or creators. Children of the age we are considering are inveterate 'makars'. It is for us to provide encouragement in the form of environment and materials—in that order.

Many teachers and most adults make two great mistakes in connection with pictures for children. One is to 'make down' the old masters for youngsters, and the other is to commend pictures specially made for children round some idea of what will suit. The more pretentious and precious of periodicals for children are full of dull examples of the former, and your progressive primers are full of pretty, pretty samples of the other. Children show a healthy lack of interest in both.

I have not found a child yet interested in the massing of shapes or the distribution of light in an old master, though his own pictures might show the same features; and as for your milk and water fairies among the bluebells and daffodils, they are of interest to the child whose feelings, and expressions of them, have both been curbed.

The fact is that children should not be talked down to nor yet expected to be adult. They take from adult speech and music exactly what they can and no more. Where these are rich, the children are enriched; where they are watered down the children suffer. The same with pictures. Old masters are interesting museum pieces for children while they are young and confident.

Children of to-day should see the adult paintings and pictures of to-day. They should know that normal adults live and move and have their being who mostly want to say what they feel by the use of shapes and colours on paper and canvas. They themselves are completely sincere about their pictures and seldom feel like apologizing for them; and they should know that adults feel the same way.

It is a danger signal of lack of integrity when a child affects that commonest of adult attitudes, 'It's quite good', about his own work. Fortunately he can be gently laughed out of such a pose. Actually I find children are far oftener ruthlessly honest in their criticism of their own work and that of their fellows, saying at once and enthusiastically how much they like or dislike it.

Of course a child is often shy at certain stages, and would not for the world say how much he thinks of his own picture, but he is simply longing to hear his teachers say how good it is—and to teachers of children up to eight years of age I would say as a general rule: 'Every child's picture should have praise, even if you have to search hard for the corner that can have it honestly. But do not ignore it.'

Art is the expression of the emotions, and your young child will create full blooded pictures until his emotions are dulled. If his imagination is fed with lifeless art it is little wonder that he himself becomes anaemic.

About a century and a half ago one of the Romantics said that art was nature's adult speech with man. To-day it is being recognized that children after their own fashion not only understand this language but rejoice in it; and from our knowledge of child psychology we are not surprised. Certain symbols and forms seem to have universal significance, and children recognize and use them.

In art we begin to realize another aspect of the truth that the child is father of the man. Men feel at home when they recognize in the world patterns of themselves. This is being happy. And since we wish to be happy we must know our home and patterns. This is why children constantly make things, and why they should be encouraged to do so in every way. Not with a utilitarian purpose or in any philistine spirit.

Their play is creative and their creations are play. They should make pictures, make tunes, make models, mould clay, use colours and materials and shapes of every kind, make poems, write stories. And all these imaginatively and individually so that each young person begins to see himself.

'Learn by doing' means learn of yourself by doing things. This is the wise teacher's answer to the ancient injunction 'Man know thyself.' It is the big chance of the teacher of art, the teacher with the biggest chance in history.

MOTHER-LOVE AND FATHER-LOVE

Dr. Alice M. Hutchison, Author of 'The Child and his Problems'

FORMERLY, and to a certain extent still, the phrase mother-love is used to denote a love which has an entirely different quality and potentiality from any other love. It is even enveloped in an atmosphere of sanctity and has inspired the painting of numberless Madonnas of outstanding beauty in line and colour. The expression on the face of each Madonna is one of extreme placidity and even apartness, and I venture to suggest that from this has emerged the ideal of the perfect mother, always unruffled and never betraying any irritability. Many young women, at the approach of motherhood, have set this ideal before them and experienced much subsequent disillusionment.

Let us face the fact that, although marriage and child-bearing have profoundly influenced the development of many women, these experiences cannot blot out warm human impulses to hate as well as love, to lose serenity to the point of strong uprushes of aggressive irritability and so on. It is fortunate, indeed, that this magic transformation cannot occur, since children stand in need above all else of a warmth of human love which I think they must recognize from early days to be punctuated by changes of atmosphere due to fluctuation of moods.

I question then the validity, when applied to human mothers, of the term maternal instinct, as it relates to animals. In these it denotes an inherited instinct to action of a certain type till their young are weaned. The human mother, however, relies on help and instruction from those experienced in the physical and mental care of children. This is even essential since human fashions are subject to change. Swaddling clothes have long since been banished from western nurseries. The long-tube feeding-bottle ended its career in contumely. Babies sleep, not in their mothers' arms but in the cot and sometimes even in a separate room. It is perhaps well that a voice should at times be raised to act as a brake on some 'advances', and to insist that babies need to spend a certain portion of each day in enjoyment of companionship experienced while in its parents' arms. Also that proximity to the mother at night is, in the early days, essential as a comfort and a safeguard.

Do all women desire motherhood? The answer is that some women, by inheritance, have an emotional warmth which craves to spend itself and which is deepened and strengthened by the demands of motherhood. Others either lack such inheritance or have developed a defence armour through handicaps in early life. These do not desire motherhood and, if they enter upon it, are incapable of reacting to the out-stretching for love of little children. For this they cannot be criticized or blamed. Rather do they stand in need of understanding.

There are also women, well endowed for motherhood, who are highly gifted in other ways and who experience a sense of frustration when outlets for these are denied. The present domestic situation has brought with it many such frustrations.

Perfection seems to me to be a dead end and, so, undesirable, and the perfect mother, were such possible, would not feel at ease in a nursery, since she might be so preoccupied with the retention of her ideal that something vital to the well-being and happiness of children would be lacking in the atmosphere.

Parenthood brings with it manifold frustrations and deprivations. Mistakes are made and irritability creeps in at times. Yet error, acknowledged and accepted as such, is the most beneficent and even helpful occurrence in all learning. Then criticism and re-learning may follow, to open up fresh avenues of thought, interest, and confidence in dealing with untoward occurrences.

The mother who has followed this path will experience, as we all do under comparable circumstances, immense relief once the need to maintain a phantasy 'I' comes to an end, whether it be about personal appearance, achievements, or strained moral aims. Instead of (metaphorically speaking) watching her children from the elevation of a throne, she will often find herself on the ground, entering into their conceptions of play with ease and enjoyment and in the spirit set by them.

More than this, having now become a normally 'imperfect' mother, she will, during difficult developmental situations, experience a sense of partnership in thought with her husband, and

the ability with him to weigh and balance before arriving at decisions as to the best line of action. Such a sense of partnership will not only deepen their mutual affection but steady and strengthen it and remove the fear of constantly impending minor disruptions.

Then, when life at school is under way, this mother, facing and accepting her weakness as well as her strength, will, with much greater readiness, agree to discuss school problems with class teachers or headmistress in an endeavour to arrive at a better understanding of the difficulties reported and the best way to remedy them. During many years of psychological work with children, I have been struck with the willingness of the large majority of parents to confer in this way. I have also found that the large majority of schools have, when such was sought, welcomed a visit from the psychiatric social worker, who comes to learn the point of view of the school about the child, and so to secure united action on his behalf in home, school, and clinic.

The phrase father-love has never taken its place in our daily speech, nor has it inspired paintings, or many poems. Prior to the second world war, it was not common for fathers to claim a place in nursery life nor give help in bathing children. But since the termination of the second world war it has become clear that, mingled with all its horror, has resulted the great boon to little children in many homes, of two parents, each bringing a separate influence into the nursery atmosphere.

What is the source of difference in unity of parental love? I suggest that a point of great importance is the fact that the woman alone passes through the nine months' creative experience, during which a new life is fashioned. Some, through a strong sense of wonder and reverence, are aware that a miracle is under way; others are unaware. But the experience, nevertheless is reserved for the woman alone. For her also is reserved the first social relationship, through the

intimacy of breast-feeding. As a result of these experiences, a different quality permeates the love of the woman for her child.

Like women, men show personality variations which affect the quality of fatherhood. Some desire it greatly, even crave it, while others are well content to forego the experience. Some show wonderful sympathetic aptitude with children, on the child's level, while others find it necessary to come 'down to the child's level'.

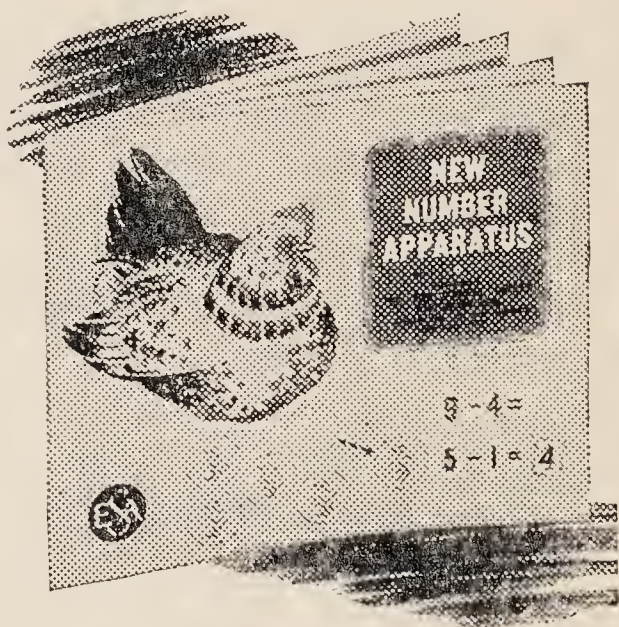
For me it is clear that once mother-love has been stripped of its sanctity veil, the outlines of a very human love of immeasurable worth stands revealed, which should be the heritage of every child. That thought and error accompany the expression of it, brings it in line with all life, which, lacking these two qualities, would indeed be devoid of meaning and progressive drive.

Equally clear is it that, for the welfare of each child, father-love, differing in quality, is, for that very reason, essential to the creation of a whole. Lack of it signifies incompleteness and so, deprivation.

[This is a chapter from Dr. Alice Hutchison's new book, now in preparation.—Ed.]

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PSYCHO-ANALYSIS AND LITERARY CRITICISM

M. L. Hourd, Author of 'The Education of the Poetic Spirit'

IT is likely that, in the stage of consciousness upon which the world is entering, more and more books will appear which attempt to apply psychological discoveries to literature. It is therefore perhaps a good thing now and again to try to estimate what benefits accrue either to literature or to psychology from the growing-pains of literary critics becoming psychologists, and psychologists turning into literary critics. Mr. F. L. Lucas¹ expresses a naïve wonder at the fact that Freud has discovered what Shakespeare always knew, and an equal amount of startled surprise that Shakespeare was so much of a Freudian; whilst Miss Ella Sharpe² displays a curious, flat dogmatism about a poet's intuitions in general.

We should not overlook the gain to any province of thought which psycho-analytic discovery can bring, nor the rich field of material which literature presents to the analyst. Nor must we fail to recognize the value to the educator of a conscious realization of how scientific research corroborates the inspirations of genius, because such awareness leads him to that place in his pupil's mind where the growing-points are to be found. But all this is something different from the function of the literary critic. Mr. Lucas would have it that psycho-analysis can provide a corrective to the wild surmises of the critics, who, he says, have lost a sense of direction. But do we want them to be so governed? Is it not through the indirections of the rich unconscious minds of critics as well as by their more conscious reasoning that the directions of poets and writers are discovered? And Mr. Lucas should be aware of this, for it is the fecundity of his mind, the wide and catholic range of his reading and the shamelessness of his prejudices that make *Psychology and Literature* such an enjoyable and stimulating book, by contrast with which Miss Sharpe's *Papers on Literary Interpretation* appear as an arid desert, with perhaps an oasis here and there.

It is interesting to consider these studies together because they illustrate two aspects of the limitations of this psycho-literary approach. Mr. Lucas traces the occurrences of neurotic manifestations in the characters and expressions

of literature which resemble very closely some of the case-histories of his favourite psycho-analyst, Dr. Stekel. Here is Lady Macbeth constantly washing her hands. Here is the same thing in the case of an obsessional neurotic. How remarkable Shakespeare was! But we need no psychologist from the twentieth century to tell us that. It is true that it is not so generally acknowledged that Freud has accomplished the cure of Lady Macbeth and discovered a means to 'pluck from the memory a rooted sorrow' in a way which her husband would have applauded to the echo, or so he says. Yet is the literary critic the proper person to announce his success? Miss Sharpe, however, who, as a psycho-analyst, is rightly placed to do this, usurps her function in another direction by taking Shakespeare into her consulting room and yet at the same time denying him the prerogatives of a patient to associate freely outside, in this case, the framework of poetry and the demands of an Elizabethan stage. Here, it would seem, is a case where vivisection is more humane than post-mortem.

And what one is most struck by in these interpretations when applied to literature is their futility and dead-endness. For example, when Miss Sharpe writes: 'I argue that Edgar would not be made by the poet to assume a madness as a successful disguise unless he himself had experienced distraught states of mind in early childhood, that had ended in an escape from expected wrath', what has she told us either about Shakespeare or about Edgar? By all means let us use literature to illustrate our psychological and educational discoveries; for once a character has left its creator's hands, he must expect it to travel on many 'strange seas of thought alone', and encounter the hazards of all creation; but that is something quite different from what is happening here where a systematized body of knowledge holds inquisition upon a poet's life, outside the conditions of analysis, and upon his characters who, through the process of drama, have obtained their own significance. Dr. Ernest Jones in his brilliant study of the Oedipus complex in Hamlet³ has illustrated psycho-analytic

¹ *Literature and Psychology*, by F. L. Lucas (Cassell), 15/-.

² 'Papers on Literary Interpretation' in *Collected Papers on Psycho-Analysis*, by Ella Freeman Sharpe (The Hogarth Press).

³ 'A Psycho-Analytic Study of Hamlet,' *Essays in Applied Psycho-Analysis*, pp. 1-98, London, 1923. *Papers on Psycho-Analysis*, London, 1938.

theory and at the same time given support to our intuitive understanding of Hamlet's character, but one wonders whether there is any further to go in this line than he has gone. He has produced a classic of its kind, one which will remain as a monument to a point of discovery, a record of a stage of consciousness. It was not designed to take the place of living criticism. But it is the work of an expert, beside which Mr. Lucas's wishful thinking theories appear as child's play.

For example, he writes: 'I do not believe with Dr. Jones that Hamlet is torn between love and hate of his father, but between love and hate of his mother. Not only has he lost her, she has also destroyed his faith in her, in other women, in humanity, in life itself. If we are to speak in terms of the Oedipus complex, we can only say that its mother-love is conspicuously present in the play, but its father-hatred concentrated wholly upon the new stepfather, Claudius. Of any hostility between Hamlet and his real father there is no more trace than of hostility between Orestes and Agamemnon, who hardly ever saw each other.' If we are to speak in terms of the Oedipus complex we must certainly first understand those terms. There is complete blindness here to the split which the nature of Hamlet's complex has caused within his personality. Mr. Lucas has not read the speech in the closet scene beginning 'Look here, upon this picture, and on this' with much insight if he cannot see how the complete idealization of the father masks the underlying hatred. We cannot apply psycho-analytic theory to literature here and there, according to our own whims, and then describe what does not fit in as itself a phantasy. Yet this is what Mr. Lucas does over and over again.

This is not to say that psycho-analysis presents a body of absolute dogmas to which we should all submit unreservedly; but the changes which are made within it must come as a result of sifted

clinical experience, not as reconstructions of the lay mind which has failed to regard its own unconscious. It is indeed just because psycho-analysis is a growing and developing science that the pronouncements of analysts upon literature will also have their limitations. It is significant, for example, that Miss Sharpe, in her earlier essay on 'The Impatience of Hamlet', fails to recognize the close connection between oral impatience and the anal defence of procrastination which her later work on Hamlet takes for granted. This advance was a gain for Miss Sharpe, but surely this is not the progress of the critic whose mind should 'move together if it move at all', especially when dealing with the 'myriad-mindedness' of Shakespeare, who had certainly recognized the relationship between impulse and delay, as he had grasped intuitively the whole Oedipus situation in Hamlet.

These instances show us how part-knowledge can fall short when it is used as a yard-stick to dictate to criticism. When Coleridge writes that Hamlet 'vacillitates from sensibility and procrastinates from thought and loses the power of action in the energy of resolve' he has by a kind

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of seizure of truth understood the problem on all levels. The wonder we feel when we read intuitive criticism of this kind is the wonder of the poet. When we follow the expert disentanglements of Miss Sharpe's method it is the wonder of the scientist that we share. As such it is not to be minimized. But the theories of psycho-analysis will suffer the fate of all scientific discoveries, as new material comes to light, and the interpretations of the analyst have in another sense a transitory existence for the patient; they evaporate as they are accepted and lose particular significance as re-construction takes place. Both analyst and analysand feel a special kind of pleasure as this happens, like the pleasure of a scientist who watches facts confirm his hypothesis; but the concern of the critic is of another kind. It does not pass as the summer cloud that has come to make good the earth, but endures as perennial fresh springs endure, a constant source of life and thought.

Mr. Lucas is not cut off from these perennial springs, but if he tries to exchange psychological interpretation for critical imagination, we shall all be the poorer. For the psycho-analyst does not set out to create our thought; his much more humble purpose is to heal and clarify our minds. Indeed some of these clarifications might have lessened the confusion of Mr. Lucas's arguments, which contradict each other throughout the book, but particularly in the last section. For he is inclined to want literature all his own way. He wants Hamlet's loyalty without his melancholia, which is like asking Shakespeare to write another play. Shelley, Blake and Strindberg, among others, are under suspicion for reasons not unlike those which caused Plato to banish his poets; yet Mr. Lucas condemns this action and denounces Plato as a neurotic genius. He recognizes the dangers of Platonic idealism when he fails to see the same dualism in Hamlet. He does not think it proper for an artist to paint a goitre—that is for the doctor to cure; yet Shakespeare is allowed the obsessional neurosis of Lady Macbeth, as well as Dr. Stekel the cure of it. Contradictions of this kind show a much more serious lack of direction in a critic than do the occasional misjudgments of intuitive writers.

Much of this criticism may seem harsh and carping but we are dealing with a complex subject, and one which it becomes increasingly necessary to clarify. In pointing out the narrow-

ness of this psycho-literary criticism I have neglected the richness of much else that appears in both these books. I have not mentioned the more strictly psycho-analytic contributions of Miss Sharpe, which do not fall under the title of this review: nor have I pointed out the refreshment to the reader which these books provide in their obviously sincere delight in men and letters and their deep appreciation and knowledge of the healing work of psycho-analysis. Such books are not to be classed for one moment with the pronouncements of such a writer as Mr. C. S. Lewis who, in his essay on 'Psycho-analysis and Literary Criticism'¹ has revealed much dishonesty of thought. Yet this essay is quoted by those who would borrow the authority of an eminent academician to protect their own fears. To offer virtuosity in symbol-hunting and confuse literary and psychological aims is one source of limitation in the critic, but to repudiate the symbol is quite another; for Mr. Lewis is very much afraid that the psycho-analyst is going to deprive him of the world of reality. 'What the literary critic complains of when he is told by the psycho-analyst that a garden represents the female body is not so much that we are interested in the female body as that we are not interested in gardens.' He hides his fears behind cheap gibes at Freud's theory of infantile sexuality, expressing himself—we are not surprised to find—a little disappointed that it was not 'naughtier' than it was. 'It is not as if we had drawn an embroidered curtain and found earwigs behind it; it is as if we had drawn it expecting to find a whole new wing of the house and found merely a door that led back to the old familiar dining-room. Our feelings would be most unsuitably expressed by the exclamation "Not that!" They demand rather the disappointed grunt "Oh! so that's all".' A most revealing passage. Mr. Lewis seems not to know that what we have always known is what we have to find out, and that this is precisely the poet's task, to lead us

'Through the unknown, remembered gate,
Where the last of earth left to discover
Is that which was the beginning.'

Criticism should take us beyond exclamations of surprise at the coming together of inner and outer experience; but if it stops short at the

¹ *Essays and Studies* by Members of the English Association (volume xxxvii, 1941).

fear of their meeting at all, then we cannot expect to find sound judgments. The critic's function is not to hunt the symbol nor to fight shy of it, but to experience it. The psycho-analyst splits up the symbol in order to find 'the rooted sorrow'. If there were no neurosis in the sub-soil he would soon lose interest. The critic is concerned mainly with the life of the symbol above ground but always in terms of the whole plant. If he holds any phantasy about disembodied spirits like 'art for art's sake' or what Mr. Lewis calls 'disinterested imagination' then I think we can suspect that he is more than a little afraid of what might

be underground. He is trying to build new wings for the house because he never comes to terms with the old familiar dining-room. Literature presents through all its various symbolisms a living organic world where unconscious experience is welded into the texture of reality. For if the body of a drowned father can by a sea-change add to the riches of the ocean-bed, then by a magic no less cunning can the body of a woman breathe again in the flowers of a garden, as did not Shakespeare re-animate the love of Perdita through the daffodils that took the winds of March with beauty?

Shorter Reviews

Seafarers, Ships, and Cargoes

Edited by Leonard Brooks and R. H. Duce (University of London Press, 10/6 net, School Edition 8/6).

This book is an anthology—but an anthology with what a difference! The editors have collected representative letters sent by ships' officers and others under the scheme of the British Ship Adoption Society. If the collection represents the general standard of the letters sent under that scheme, then the sooner the shipless schools make their adoptions, the better for them. Too often it seems inevitable that adult experts, when they have to write for children, should get themselves down on the rug and play bears. Here there is no suggestion of that kind of unhealthy patronage. These seamen write as men who know their job—and like it—to people who really want to find out what it is like, and are therefore worth talking to. Their letters have a convincing air of enjoyment and their style has the vigour of someone telling a straight tale. There are many touches of humour—the Agent's letter is a joy, and a piece of good information, too. The publishers have taken pains over the illustrations—they whet the reader's appetite to sample the book, a valuable one for the library and as a complement to the geography lesson. S. E. Buckley

The Schoolmaster Aubrey de Selincourt (John Lehmann 8/6).

I came to the reading of this book prejudiced in favour of the author, for in an earlier book, *The Young Schoolmaster*, he put into the mouth of a fifteen-year old maladjusted boy the most poignant and dramatic criticism of school life I had come upon and which has remained near my heart ever since: 'You can't do

what you're expected to do, and what you want to do isn't allowed. So you're up against it.' The man who has such understanding insight into children's needs shows, in the book under review, no less keen perception of the men and women whose vocation it is to minister to those needs.

Although the author's teaching experience has been in schools not under the State system he has a large grasp of the problems facing all schools. '... in the last analysis, all human beings, young or old, learn effectively only what they want to learn, only what contributes to a deep and perhaps unconscious need, so that part of an educator's task, and by no means the easiest, is to find out what that is in each of the children under his charge. If he fails to find out, then most of his time, and most of the child's time will be thrown away.'

In his estimate of the duties and the difficulties of the schoolmaster the author is fair in his assessment and fearless in his criticism. But his style is so convincing, his choice of the phrase *juste* so unerring and the touch of his irony so gentle that those who may want to curse will finish by mumbling, '*mea culpa, mea culpa*'.

But why is he so intolerant of co-education? 'What really happens in co-educational schools', he writes, 'seems to me to be that boys and girls spend so much time and energy in falling in love with each other that they have little left for anything else.' This is one of those sweeping exaggerations that may be suitable for a comic strip; it is not worthy of the author of *The Young Schoolmaster*. And why, oh why, has he allowed himself to fall into the solecistic trap—no longer pardonable—of referring to the Board of Education?

Alex. A. Bloom

Lands of the Commonwealth

R. K. and M. I. R. Polkinghorne (Harrap 10/6 net)

The purist may claim that much in this book should be written only by a first-hand eye-witness. Where is the eye-witness to be found whose survey could cover the ground required to fulfil the authors' intention? They aim to present a picture of the lands and peoples of the British Empire, and to show their development towards the British ideal of responsible self-government. They have therefore devoted attention chiefly to the Colonies, for it is in them that we can see most clearly the progress towards this ideal. Their method is to give a picture of the daily life of the people in places as varied as East and West Africa, Ceylon, Malaya, Borneo, the West Indies, Bermuda, British Guiana, British Honduras, the Falklands, South Georgia, the scattered island colonies, and India. It is almost inevitable that in such a wide survey there should be a tendency here and there to descend to the catalogue. And perhaps the style is often too simple for the 'general reader' whom the authors wish to embrace in their audience. It is difficult to appeal to young and old in the same book, though it can be done. The book is adequately illustrated, and the pictures serve their purpose well, even though in some cases the reproduction suggests a misty autumn day in England. S. E. B.

Among books recently received in *The New Era* office we have been particularly glad to see the English edition of *Your Child Makes Sense* by Edith Buxbaum (Allen & Unwin), 12/6 (the American edition was reviewed in *The New Era*, of March 1950); and a new and revised edition of *The Health of the Mind* by J. R. Rees (Faber & Faber), 9/6.—ED.

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THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

TRADITION IN EDUCATION

David Murray-Rust, Sidcot School, Winscombe

TWENTY-FIVE years ago, fruitful discussion of this subject would have been well-nigh impossible amongst those enthusiastic for 'progressive' methods of education. Tradition in education would have conjured up pictures of the pedagogue with cap, gown and grammar book instructing youth whose education was divided equally between the academic and the athletic ; the picture would be painted in subdued tones and musty in smell. Against this would be set a picture of effortless lessons in material and mental sunlight, informal and even voluntary, in bright colours and with the continual scent of a spring day. There could be no doubt about the right choice and little room for discussion. You could not serve Tradition and Freedom. There have been many changes and much experience gained in these twenty-five years. No longer is something automatically good or bad simply because it is long-established ; things are subjected to a wiser judgment, born out of experience.

The very word 'tradition' defies exact definition. A distinction, though not indeed a sharply defined one, is to be made between 'traditions' and 'Tradition'. The former can mean no more than customs which have lost their significance and are only continued through conservative inertia. At one Public School a newly-appointed housemaster was concerned at the large number of futile but customary privileges accorded to the seniors in his house. Knowing the conservatism of boys, he thought it unwise to abolish any out of hand, but instead he asked for a list of them all. When the list appeared, the number of these privileges had been reduced to about one half, for no one had had the face to put in writing the more absurd ones. Most traditional customs can be subjected to this form of analysis, if need be, and judged on their merits.

The 'Tradition' of a school, its 'ethos', is less tangible ; analyse it and you lose it, but it is none

the less real in its influence, good or bad, on those who are its members. In the 1920's there were schools with a long history and many traditions, with a high standard of athletic prowess and providing, for those who desired it, an excellent opportunity for scholarly work ; yet in their ethos there was too much importance placed on games, on dress, on the value of money, on the exercise of power. So it appeared, at least, to a number of less conventional and perhaps more sensitive boys. There were many who left with a satirical and even bitter 'anti-traditional' feeling. Fun was increasingly poked at ideas such as 'good form' and 'the team spirit'. It was a healthy swing away from pomposity and over-seriousness, for it meant that these schools began to look at themselves and even to laugh at themselves ; and that is the most satisfactory step towards reform. Still, as in so many revolutionary movements, the swing went too far and there were many who cried for the abolition of all things traditional. In the urge to begin afresh and live only in the present, much that was of value was uncritically discarded ; to be old was to be old-fashioned and this was a sin against society. This phase is now past. Many schools, both new and old, have been critically examining the value of tradition, meaning in this case the handing down from one school generation to another of ideas and customs. Many years are not necessary for the founding of a tradition, since a school generation is only five years or so ; to a boy at school half a generation is a long time and anything established before he came has been there for ever.

Critical examination of tradition leads to the conclusion that it has two main effects on the life of a pupil at school ; these, for want of a better term, may be called the 'unifying' and the 'smothering' effects. They work in opposition and must be considered separately.

The unifying effect concerns the human need

to be at one with his fellows. Man cannot live alone unless he is an eccentric or a religious recluse ; he requires the support and security of a community. And this is even more so with boys and girls who have not developed the emotional and spiritual reserves which an adult who has come to maturity has built up. The importance of a stable family background is being increasingly recognized and one of the main causes of the feeling of security of a child in a united family is the sense of being part of a greater whole. This is helped by simple family customs, such as a traditional observance of birthdays and other festivals, by everyday things such as a reading before bed-time or saying grace before meals. A child who says 'We always do this or that at home' is usually a child with security ; by using the first person plural he has unconsciously identified himself with the community and so feels bigger as a result. Children like the tradition born of repetition and that may be why the young can be so disconcertingly conservative.

It is the same in many schools as at home ; customs or actions which are repeated daily or week by week are restful for the ordinarily active child or adolescent and give him a sense of belonging.

In this country we are most of us like Janus, double-faced, with a strong regard for the past as well as having a view to the future. Our old buildings, with the traditions of continuous history attached to them, are part of our consciousness as well as our heritage, and many of our young people, even those we would call uncultured seem to have a sense of this. It is an unusual boy or girl, even if living in an industrial city and intensely cinema-minded, that would not have some feeling of awe in visiting a medieval cathedral for the first time. He would not perhaps admit its effect and almost certainly would be bored by a prolonged visit, but he would not be quite untouched. To a much greater extent old buildings with a continuous tradition of learning attached to them affect those who work in them. Many idle and ignorant men have passed through our older Universities (probably more in the past than in our more competitive modern days) but it would be vain to deny that the antiquity and traditions of the Colleges have exerted a deep influence on generations of students. This is not, however, to agree with the view, which I have heard expressed, that a school to be really cultured

should be accommodated in buildings of the antiquity and beauty of Winchester Cathedral. Boys and girls can be equally barbarians or civilized whether surrounded by cloisters or chromium. There is, nevertheless, one side of our school or adult life which is deeply affected by old buildings and that is our tradition of worship. We should be very sorry to lose our ancient cathedrals or village churches ; and even among Quakers, who have always maintained that true worship may be carried on in any building or out of one, there are few who do not feel the spell of an old Meeting House which has been in continuous use since the seventeenth century. Very few indeed of our schools have a chapel of actual antiquity, but many have not unsuccessfully tried to capture the spirit of the past by means of simple and impressive services in dignified buildings.

Now, there are many who will maintain that all this attention to things of tradition is not only unnecessary but positively harmful ; that, even if we do face both forward and backward, we are in danger of closing those eyes which look forward and using only those looking into the past. If we do not use both pairs of eyes, we shall indeed be exposing the boy or girl at school to the second of the two effects of tradition : what has been called the smothering effect. It is the personality of the individual, his capacity for enterprise, which can be smothered if we allow the hand of the past to become too heavy ; to become in fact a dead hand. This has happened in countless instances, particularly in the Public Schools in the first part of this century. Frequently it has occurred through a House having too strong a tradition for being good at games or having success in the competitions of the Officers Training Corps. A boy proves himself not good at games and is perhaps unable to conceal his lack of interest in the O.T.C. He is labelled at once 'not a good member of the House' and so is despised and unpopular in his community. Such a boy is likely either to withdraw into himself, frustrated from making contributions to the community in other directions, or to become rebellious and to carry an uncritically iconoclastic spirit into his adult life. There have been all too many examples of both. Opposition to tradition, however, when it has been a revolt against the smothering effect has been the basis of many reforms. It was the reason for the revolt of Jesus himself against

undue importance placed on traditional observance. We are told in the seventh chapter of Mark's Gospel how the complaint from the Pharisees, that the disciples of Jesus were not observing the traditions of the elders, brought from him a violent denunciation of their way of life. 'Full well ye reject the commandment of God, that ye may keep your own tradition', he says; and then he gives them in vivid language an example of the sort of thing they do. Much educational reform has had the same basis; though not expressed in religious terms, it has worked on the principle that 'it is the spirit that giveth life'. A crime has been committed against the child if he is not permitted, through tradition or any other influence, to give freedom to the spirit that is in him.

Like so many other things, tradition can be a bad master but a good servant. It is only comparatively recently, however, that progressive schools have given serious consideration to the possibility of its service. There is in many such schools now a certain amount of ceremonial, usually quite simple, which has come into being by natural growth or has been deliberately introduced. It takes varying forms: such as a particular ordering of a School Assembly, a grace before meals, or a promise made by prefects at the time of their appointment. These schools find that such simple observances, already becoming traditional, have a quietening effect on children, not because they are over-awed by them, but because they seem to value the presence in their ever-active lives of something tranquil and imbued with dignity. It seems probable, therefore, that some simple ceremonial will become more common in all types of school and when, with the passing of one or two school generations, it becomes a tradition it will serve the valuable purpose of not only helping the unity of the school in the present, but of welding a link with the past members. Its usefulness would cease, however, the moment its purpose was forgotten and the observance became more important than the people.

In this essay I have been concerned with education as it deals with the relationship of the individual to the community, rather than with its instructional aspects: for our social techniques are far behind our instructional. A collection of individuals may be rudely classified in one of three categories: it may be a gang, or a crowd, or a community. A gang is a group in

which the fact of association brings about a lowering of the personality of the individuals composing it; the moral sense of the group is less than that of the persons in it. There may be a sense of purpose, but it will be a debased sense. In a crowd of strangers, such as pour daily up and down the escalators of London, an individual stays himself. If he is content in himself, he remains content in the crowd; if he is lonely, the presence of the crowd does nothing to relieve his loneliness. A community is an association of individuals, bringing about an increase of the personality through a sense of loyalty or of belonging to the group. Fortunately schools of the first type are rare or now extinct; but one of the continuing aims of education must be to produce schools which turn from crowds into communities; in which the individual has the freedom to develop his individuality, while living with the sense of security engendered by belonging to a whole which is greater than himself. Experience is showing that tradition, wisely used, can help to bring this about and it is in this way that tradition can be of service to education.

Must we take sides?

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ON SOCIAL STUDIES AND ITS TECHNIQUES

J. Widdows, Bingley Secondary Modern School, Yorkshire

BACON says that 'Studies serve for delight, for ornament and for ability', and Pope, that 'the proper study of mankind is man.' The delight, and the sense of adventure which is present in a class which is pursuing Social Studies in a full degree, shows that children are conscious of these truths. They really do desire to know about their own surroundings, and wish to compare them with the conditions and systems of other people in the world, and in time. Perhaps the best proof of this is in the subjects chosen in children's comics and magazines, for there it is not father, mother, teacher or club leader who makes the choice—the editor must satisfy the desires of the boy who himself pays out the price, and though in many cases we deplore the standard of such papers, the sales seem to show that children approve their subject matter. The *Dandy* produces 'Sir Solomon Snoozer'—the Mediaeval mixing with the Modern. It has 'Quick Nick', an eighteenth-century London apprentice. The *Beano* offers 'Simple Simon'—of the days of the Barons, and 'Jimmy and his Magic Patch'—which peculiar square of cloth can take its owner into any period of history. The two papers quoted have a wide circulation, and, as such, must show to a great extent the tastes of their readers. From Bacon and Pope to the *Beano* and the *Dandy* is far travel, but a teacher who is interested in his job keeps catholic company.

What I say here applies to the Secondary Modern and Technical Schools—I have little experience of Grammar Schools other than my own education there. In our school—Bingley Secondary Modern and Technical—we believe that Social Studies gives us the opportunity of studying man and his environment in a true perspective, an opportunity which we feel is denied to subject teachers of history and geography. Nevertheless, this article has no desire to become a forum for the reiteration of arguments for and against the teaching of Social Studies. Much—perhaps all—that I have to say can be applied to the teaching of history and geography in similar schools.

What is needed in a teacher of Social Studies? First, I think, he needs a breadth of outlook and an ever-growing general knowledge, and, of course, an intense personal love of some aspects of the

matter he presents. He must be possessed of an insatiable curiosity, for he must be ready to go forward into study with the children. He is, all the time, both teacher and fellow student. The word 'Specialist' should be applied to him only in the way in which it is applied to all good teachers—he should be a specialist in teaching. It is of this aspect of his work that I wish to speak. How best can his teaching be done? For what is he aiming? What—and in this subject he must face the question—what is mere showmanship for 'Open Days' and what is good teaching?

Let us deal first with formal teaching. There is a place, and a very important one, for chalk and talk in Social Studies. The blackboard, properly used, still reigns supreme as the finest visual aid. The emphasis, however, is on the 'talk'. It should be 'talk', and not 'monologue'—the teacher's monologue. Some of the finest teaching in the world is done in incidental conversation between parent and child, and this is mainly Social Studies, for it is study of man in his environment. Every Social Studies lesson, therefore, must be a discussion lesson.

Before considering further the techniques of teaching, let us think for a moment of our aims. I know of a teacher who was extremely annoyed because, in an examination, only one child knew the name of Christopher Columbus' wife. The teacher felt hurt, having impressed the name upon the children. Do you know the name of Signora Columbus? As a matter of fact, I do not—and I do not much care, either. Our primary object is not to produce a set of little 'swots'. Some facts are important—some dates need to be learnt as 'time pegs', but facts are not our first aim. We wish, first, to help children to fit competently and intelligently into the modern world. One can hardly say, comfortably, because it is not a comfortable one. And secondly, far more important than learning all about a few things, we wish them to know how to find out about many things—in fact, simple research, use of books, indexes, etc., and the selecting and weighing of information.

This means that classrooms, often quite unsuitable for the purpose, must become laboratory, workshop and library. Every text-book on which one can lay one's hands should be easily accessible to the children, and all the tools and materials—

pens, crayons, paint, paper, glue, scissors, etc., should be where they can get them. The desks are best arranged round three sides of the room (giving a group feeling for discussion and room for dramatization, and may be pushed together to form benches).

Topic Working

In dealing with any topic, one must consider first the division of the class, and second, the correlation of the result and its form of presentation. It is not necessarily a logical progression from class-working to group-working, and thence to individual research. One must consider the place of the topic in the scheme of work, and the purpose it is going to serve. Thus one may find oneself doing individual research, in a first year class, and group-working followed by brief talks by several individual children in a fourth. I think it is, however, important that the eleven and twelve-year-old children should have experience in all three, to facilitate work in senior classes. When I mention group-working, I mean from two to six children under a child who is a group leader.

The two simplest vehicles for presenting a topic for individual or group study are the imperial sheet and the concertina. The single, large sheet is good because a child can see his whole work all the time. A concertina is good because it may be made of any length, and kept as a book, or opened out for display. The concertina should be about six inches wide, and folded in a zig-zag fashion, with pictures and writing pasted on one side only. Let us consider actual examples of each, done with children aged eleven to twelve, working singly or in pairs. First, the imperial sheet.

One of my children chose the subject of the knife. He used *History Through Familiar Things*, Book I, as his foundation, searching out other books or drawing on his own knowledge as he went along. In the centre of the sheet he put a simple title, and divided off the rest into six compartments. His pictures were of a flint, a bronze axe-head, a viking sword, a rapier, a modern plough and a machine for slicing loaves of bread. Each one was dated, and each had a sentence explaining its use. Another child, studying discovery, used the same method for a sheet on Columbus, but in this case illustrations were cut from a magazine which had been reviewing the film, and a map was included.

With first year children, after letting them do a topic alone, I generally follow with a guided topic, such as food—its main importance being the teaching of simple techniques of research—what to choose, what to reject, in the setting down of a topic. Later, the general topic being 'Homes', I let each pair choose a subject within the main topic, and produce a concertina. Subjects chosen were, among many others, 'Kitchens', 'Simple homes to-day', 'Ovens', 'Sanitary arrangements', 'Inns'. In these cases, most of the children were becoming familiar with many of the books available, and for additional information either browsed, asked me for help, or went to the school library and consulted encyclopaedias. Each picture was balanced by half a page of comment or explanation.

There is no space, and, I think, little need, to go into greater detail until the third year is reached. Here a much higher standard of work is required, and the approach must be more ordered and logical. I feel the use of task cards is vital. Let us take, as an example, the topic, 'The history of coal'.

One child would be given the job of preparing a front of the completed class book (generally half imperial size). The rest, in pairs, would have a choice of subjects, such as 'Make a map comparison of the coal industry in England in A.D. 1700 and to-day', 'By means of diagrams and written explanations, show how coal was formed', 'By drawing, diagram and explanation, trace the development of mining from the use of sea-coal to the bell-shaft'. One child would be detailed as a 'co-ordinator'—to whom children must take their queries before approaching the teacher, and this child would be responsible for arranging the finished work in the class book. On the back of

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each task card would be a list of up to five books in which the information required could be found, and these books would have been put together in one place before the topic began. Finally, the book completed, children would be required to talk about, and discuss with the class, the sub-topic which they had studied, and the class would make their own very brief notes in exercise books on the whole topic.

Before leaving the subject of cards, I must mention a fourth year topic. A class of twenty, divided into five groups, were making a simple study of population. They did it by considering, first, types of comparatively empty places in the world, and then, comparatively full ones. The five topics for underpopulated areas were: Deserts, Ice Deserts and Tundra, Jungles, High Mountains, Steppes. A type card was:

Ice Deserts and Tundra

Allot the following tasks to your group:

1. A cover for the book.
2. A map of the world, showing tundra regions and the two ice-deserts.
3. One page of writing and a picture showing what the country is like.
4. What causes ice desert and tundra? Make one page of writing. See me if in trouble. (They did!)
5. Life on the fringes of the ice deserts. (Samoyede—'Real Geography—Asia'.)
Two pages of writing with pictures interposed, dealing with dwellings, tools, animals, work, etc.
6. Is the country of any use? Why do few people live there? Can it be altered?

Group leader—make a note of the books issued in the first lesson. You will have to get your own in future. Use the indexes.

From these cards, each group produced a book of about ten pages, the size of the covers being about six inches by nine inches. They gave a brief lecture, and after class discussion, a summary of roughly three sentences was made in exercise books on each region. This was followed by a general discussion on sparsely populated areas, and a further summary.

Models

Models can be good servants or bad masters. To decide whether a model is worth while, one must ask oneself if the time spent is justified by the results. This period of time will vary, of course, with the age and stream of class. With a fourth year 'D' stream, in Social Studies, I am prepared to spend a lot of time in model-making,

but with an excellent class of boys in the Technical School, I find it hard to justify model making at all. Another question one must ask is, can the purpose of model-making be served better by any other approach? In the higher streams and ages, the answer is usually yes. A fourth year 'A' stream class will get far more from individual research than from the making of a model. My fourth year Technical class studied each a Dominion, produced an excellent class-book, gave brief lectures, and made a summary in their exercise books of each Dominion mentioned, while the 'D' stream made a simple, semi-pictorial history of Australia and four model maps of mountains and rivers, railways and towns, sheep areas, and vegetation.

Nevertheless, model-making can be streamlined, and, if it is, its value increases. If sheets are prepared for, say, a third year class studying the history of farming, so that each group may produce part of a model (one yard square) of the Open Field System in England that model can be made and finished in less than three one-hour periods. The most important part of the preparation is the time spent by the teacher in thinking out the simplest and most easily worked materials. Stiff paper and river-clay form the basis of most of mine. There is, however, particularly in the teaching of backward children, a large field for the use of the representational model.

Conclusion

What I have said is sketchy in the extreme. The subject is vast, and my article short. In closing, let me emphasize that 'what to do' is not as important as 'how to do it', and, finally, the children may or may not remember what I say, but they *will* remember what they do.

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A REGIONAL SURVEY ON WHEELS

G. W. Humphrey, St. Christopher, Letchworth

PARTIES of children from St. Christopher, a co-educational day and boarding school in Letchworth, are often taken youth hostelling at weekends during the term, and the older children sometimes go without adults in term and in the holidays. A group of the staff organizes this because they consider the children can profit in many directions, especially if they do the preliminary bookings and plan the route, buy necessary food and prepare the meals.

But these children feel after a week of learning, mainly in the classroom, that the weekend should be given to frivolity and there is little inclination for disciplined enquiry into the architecture or natural history of the places they visit. They are generally taken out by specialists in Modern Languages, Mathematics, or Music, and though these may be enthusiasts for the pleasures of the country they have not the specialist knowledge which wins a child's respect and helps him to catch an enthusiasm. Almost invariably 'country hobbies' are caught from a specialist who is prepared to share his enthusiasm. Ideally, education should build the enquiring mind that is aroused by the possibilities in new experiences.

The aim of the Youth Hostels Association is 'to help all, especially young people of limited means, to a greater knowledge, love and care of the countryside . . .' During this summer term it was decided that two staff should take out a group of eighteen children, aged about thirteen and fourteen, for a week's youth hostelling over the Chilterns and in the Thames Valley from Marlow to Oxford. They were lively children yet capable of self-discipline and obedience. It was certain they would co-operate (certain as any new situation can be), and treat it as a working week, not an extended weekend. They did co-operate fully and indeed seemed to enjoy the working five days more than the Saturday and Sunday, when they were still out and not expected to work.

The week's work was to be mainly centred round the geography and natural history of the region and would bring in any obvious historical associations. The children took learning work in other subjects. There were ten girls and eight boys, all from the same class in the school, about half from each division; all who went had chosen to go, and about the same number stayed behind.

The expedition involved about twenty to twenty-five miles' cycling each day for a week, two hours' work each morning and one hour in the evening. One staff would be solely concerned with geography and the other would supervise all other work and organization. The week before the experiment took place most of the children prepared maps of the district; they enjoy making maps and most of them spent some hours of their free time in order to do these particularly well. The History master intended to give them some advice, the previous week, on what to look for.

But the History teacher was away that week and the morning the party set out the Geography teacher was unwell. An old scholar of the school, interested in Geography but not an expert, volunteered to take his place. The experiment was now very different from that originally planned. The children enjoyed the week as an opportunity for exploring and recording what they found interesting. Besides a great deal of written description of places and notes of information given by shopkeepers, people met in the street, porters of colleges, there were careful drawings, sometimes redrawn two or three times, and four members of the party took excellent photographs.

We got up at seven each morning and had breakfasted, done the hostel jobs and packed up in time to leave the hostel between 8.30 and 9 a.m. Each day's organization was different depending on the district, the wishes of the children, and what presented itself; at Ivinghoe we could not escape a genuine village fair. Some of the morning might be spent in writing and some in exploring districts chosen by the two adults who had both frequently cycled through this part of the country. The teacher who had taken on general organization stationed himself at some central spot to give advice or deal with emergencies, but what he got was information, and he was only needed once for help in mending a bicycle brake and once to take three children into the Oxford Botanical Gardens. Boys who were normally believed only willing to practise their literary style on accounts of how to make a wireless set had long discussions with college porters and deans and produced notes to write up into histories and descriptions of colleges, or essays on Milton; their style was vaguely Elizabethan.

Usually from the mid-day meal till 6 p.m. was free and most of the cycling was done during that time, but the enthusiasm for sketching and noting strange inscriptions in churches overflowed into this period. A quiet hour in the evening was spent writing or learning the work they had brought with them. The pleasure most of the party derived from the experiment enabled them to get up willingly at 7 a.m. each morning and keep going through a strenuous day that was often so full that they could not get to bed till ten in the evening. They came back on the last day browner and healthier, and much tougher cyclists than when they set out. And each had from five to thirty-five pages of notes and essays besides drawings and photographs.

To summarize certain important points in this part of the experiment: (a) the two adults had very little specialist knowledge to enable them to direct the children's activities; (b) though some children were enthusiastic for exploring and recording the results, the majority co-operated initially because it was a pleasant variation on school work; but most of these developed an interest in the work itself; (c) the children immediately acquired the ability to approach towns, villages, buildings, geographical features with their eyes open, but we were not competent to fit their findings into an integrated body of knowledge; (d) through living and working together for a week there was a definite improvement in certain simple virtues of social life such as co-operation and unselfishness—e.g. shirking washing up, grouching, or lateness for meals or at meeting places, were obviously a nuisance and a hindrance.

Now the group returned to school and was absorbed again into the larger community. There was a great deal of material and it was decided to make a magazine; all offered to help; four editors were elected and the magazine was planned by the editors and the two staff. Three weeks later the editors had done nothing. Eventually

an excellent magazine was put together through the efforts of the two staff and one of the editors, but they had great difficulty in persuading members of the party to polish passages from their diaries and to write up articles; this was a surprising contrast with the sustained energy shown during the week out.

Though the magazine itself was a success the way it was put together must be considered our main failure. The editors elected were busily concerned in teams, sports practices and other responsibilities, but it was not only that they and the other members of the party had many interests in the school community that absorbed their time and energy; even more the failure seemed due to a self-consciousness and self-criticism at this age that makes it difficult for these children to exhibit their work before a larger public. Next time I think the adult in charge should choose the editors and have a different group each week until the magazine is finished.

I should be very grateful for advice or criticism from any readers or suggestions of books that might help further stages of this experiment to be carried through successfully.

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THE YOUNG SUBNORMAL

Herbert C. Günzburg, Education and Training Officer, Monyhull Hall, Birmingham

EVERY colony for mentally defectives shelters a number of young certified patients whose general emotional instability and immaturity makes it advisable to keep them out of harm's way in the protective shelter of an institution. As has been pointed out in a previous article¹ it is rather the lack of social efficiency than the limited intellectual efficiency which constitutes the main problem of their adequate stabilization in society. This again can be ascribed to a mixture of emotional immaturity and instability, to excitability and difficulties in adjusting to demands, all of which lead to friction with the rules of society. The degree of intellectual functioning determines mainly the level on which the collision takes place—whether a clever confidence trick or a clumsy and easily discovered petty theft—but scarcely causes the breakdown in social relationship.

This has partly been recognized in the past and the colonies have therefore insisted that their main function was the provision of a temporary shelter, the regulated and supervised life offering opportunity to 'cool down' and to 'get settled', in the case of those defectives who could otherwise very well fend for themselves.

With our present-day knowledge of the intricate interplay of intellectual and affective factors, and of psychotherapeutic methods this approach appears to be somewhat passive and also often ineffective since it leads to 'institution adjustment'; instead of having learnt to respond to the demands of 'real life', youths who have spent years in an institution have learnt to react to the considerably lower standards and different demands there and find it in consequence more than difficult to change their way of life.

It appears necessary to introduce a more active therapeutic policy into the colony which recognizes the fact that the meagre and unbalanced abilities of the defective can be developed by individual treatment. The Training School, which provides the frame for the following case studies, is a small scale experiment for the study of a group of certified youth under conditions different from those which the colony usually permits. Space is too limited to describe the

programme underlying this attempt and it must suffice to indicate four areas of disturbance which find remedial treatment in the Training School.

The emotional difficulties and faulty relationship with the environment due to the defective's poor personality make-up demand both individual therapy and adjustment to the emotional climate of a small family-like group; intellectual difficulties and poor manual abilities require general training in manual work and assistance in the educational field; all this can be carried out to a certain extent in the colony. The psychological orientation of this approach is obvious and, it may be added, novel in all but a few mental deficiency colonies. The following short case studies will give at least an impression of the type of defective who can successfully be handled in a Training School and could be turned into an adequate member of society if sufficient attention were paid to his problems.

The Training School

The buildings themselves are ignominiously tucked away among various maintenance shops of the colony and have nothing in their favour but the fact that they are the only ones available. Low and badly lit, neither their siting nor their size would appeal to modern educators. There are two huts, one for machine work, the other for 'arts and crafts', the two together keeping about twenty-five lads occupied.

All boys between 16 and 21 who are recent admissions and not on the idiot level are sent to the Training School for at least one month. Those who want to do farmwork or gardening, and who shew no aptitude for any 'trade' taught in the Training School, are placed after this month of observation with the appropriate departments. The majority of the lads stays until either a daily job can be found for them or they can be discharged on licence or until they become too old for the School. The 'trial run' in a daily job, that is to say work in a factory or other job outside the colony whilst resident in the institution, necessitates usually a year's stay in the colony during which sufficient observations can be made to decide whether it is advisable that such an experience should be arranged for the boy. Unfortunately, chances to prove themselves outside

¹ 'Social Inefficiency and Mental Defect,' *The New Era*, January, 1950, Vol. 31, No. 1.

the colony depend too much on what vacancies are available, and it is often difficult to avoid placing round pegs in square holes.

The lads are mostly medium grade youths with I.Q.'s round about 60, but their intellectual level may be lower than 40. Differences in intellectual endowment, as well as differences in maturity, adaptability and mechanical aptitude, are responsible for the rough classification into machine shop workers or 'arts and crafts workers'. The latter category includes mainly rugmaking of various types of complexity, the assembling, varnishing and seating of small stools, weaving, lamp-shade making and so on. The notorious institution trades, such as brush-, basket-, or mat-making have been discontinued and the present occupations will later on be supplanted by more realistic occupations in conjunction with the machine shop. Though the majority of the low-grade lads are placed here, a few of them show sufficient aptitude to be employed in the machine shop for odd jobs, though they are of course kept away from the machinery.

The machine shop, containing two power factory drills, two lathes, a paint spraying outfit, soldering and brazing equipment, grinding and polishing gear, is peopled by most of the more intelligent lads. Some of them have handled machines before they came to the colony; many are new to them; but they all show a healthy respect for moving parts and no serious accident has occurred. Though each of the lads is responsible only for one part operation in the production of a finished article, so that the more simple tasks may be handed over to the less capable workers, they observe the creation of the article from the beginning to the end.

The Lads

As already mentioned, the Training School accepts at present lads of all intellectual levels and a visit to the machine shop offers a most instructive cross-section of our population.

As far as our 'low-grades' are concerned, there are now three lads whose personality pattern does not offer much hope for the future. They are so easily led that they would soon be in the hands of the police if sent out of the institution. Quite content with their life, they do odd jobs, help in keeping the place clean and tidy and learn the rudiments of one job or another. A 'chance outside' does not depend on the possession of a comparatively

sufficient I.Q., as can be seen from the example of *Joe* (I.Q. 46) who left us a year ago and works satisfactorily in a factory though he is still resident in the institution. *Norman* (I.Q. 37) will probably leave us soon to take up a job as a scavenger, and *John* (I.Q. 47) has now been sent on 'licence' after having become a good and reliable factory worker.

Fred (I.Q. 54) is holding satisfactorily a job in a hotel. Having been in institutions nearly all his life (his mother is a certified defective) he loathed leaving us and was in a terror lest he should fail. The hotel proved to be rather an overwhelming experience at first and he was shocked to discover the use of double-beds. He told us of 'brown beds' and we thought he meant the bedspread until we discovered that he referred to beds made of wood, which he had never seen in his institution life which had contained hygienic iron bedsteads only!

Ronald is a fair-haired, well-built youth of nearly 18, who has been with us only a few months. His home environment deserves special study since much of his later trouble may be due to it. His parents, who are both dead, had five children of whom Ronald is the third. After the death of his father, mother went to live with Mr. X, and from that co-habitation resulted another six children, two of whom died very young. Mr. X himself had added to the 'family' two children from a previous liaison. After the death of Ronald's mother, Mr. X went to live with another young woman, 'Rose', who already had three children and now has another from the union with Mr. X. Altogether there are fourteen children alive, ranging from 22 years to 3 months, of different parentage and family relationship, but all reckoned to belong to the family lorded over by Mr. X, a man in his late forties, described as being reticent, mild, but with indication of potential irritability and temper. The family lives in some converted garage or workshop. The place is poorly furnished and gives the impression of poverty, dirt and low standards of living. They have taken in lodgers, a married couple, whose children are, incidentally, also at Monyhull Hall.

Soon after his mother's death, Ronald, who was unable to get on with Mr. X, began staying out late, wandering in the streets and at last left home altogether. In this he was probably encouraged by the example of the oldest sibling, Tom, aged 22, who has been to Borstal and got

himself into trouble again only recently. Ronald explained to me that he obtained lodgings and was looking for a job (he had held previously at least three situations, one in a tool making factory where he earned £3 10s. a week), but he was found by the police in a neglected state, having been wandering around the city for more than a month. He appeared before the Juvenile Court as being in need of care and protection, was examined and found to be feeble-minded, which led finally to his admission to Monyhull.

He gave us much trouble right from the beginning, talking 'big', complaining often, avoiding work, breaking tools and so on, though he was a good and skilful worker when he was in the mood. He referred to his stepfather, 'Mr. X', with much hostility—'I shall run my knife into him'—though he stated on another occasion that Mr. X would do anything for him and would sell his last shirt to get Ronald some pocket money. He was disgusted with the condition his home was in and asserted that sometimes the first thing he does when going home on parole is to get down and scrub the floor. He told me about a family he met in Wales when evacuated and spontaneously burst out with: 'I wish I had a decent home like theirs'—mentioning particularly the clean sheets and towels. He came back late from parole on two occasions with not very plausible stories about Tom trying to obtain money from him under threat, and 'Rose' having sold his mother's furniture which he went to redeem. We checked the stories and found them to be true.

I spent quite some time in nearly daily sessions with him and our relationship went through all phases of tentative confidences, open distrust, violent abuse behind my back and public bragging how he could twist me round his little finger. Nevertheless it has become a little quieter round him and the staff complains now more frequently of his carelessness over tools and materials than of his mutinous trends. There is, of course, still a large amount of hostility, which, however, finds more 'legal' expression in asking 'awkward' questions at our weekly discussions, or acting the 'sea-lawyer' among the group of contented but easily led low-grades.

The psychological examination provides valuable information concerning Ronald's potentialities and present personality pattern. In 1949 he was reported to have a Binet I.Q. of 54, but 1950 our psychologist gave him a Wechsler I.Q. of 68

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(M.A. 10) with a strong performance bias which earned him a performance I.Q. of 82 (M.A. 11.9). He was then described to be 'of borderline intelligence . . . and the undoubtedly higher potential level definitely contra indicates true intellectual deficiency. He enters into the test with enthusiasm, but his enthusiasm tends to get the better of him and he is liable to get confused. He has a plausible manner, he is flexible, adaptable and definitely out to impress. He attempts to talk his way out of his failures and does not apparently mind being checked. His judgment is good and particularly in social situations he is very much "on the ball".'

The Rosenzweig Picture Frustration Test showed him to be at heart a weakling who will respond to firm directive handling. The Drawing Test (Machover Technique) and the Rorschach corroborate these findings. In particular the Rorschach shows that he 'is a very immature personality . . . easily affected by emotional situations which he finds it hard to overcome. Denial, opposition and loss of efficiency are the usual consequences. He is quite social and very responsive to happenings around him, without actually being able to deal with them constructively. On the whole one would say that he cannot take it—that his immaturity may largely account for this, and that infantile aggression and stubbornness is marked.' The psychiatric summary characterizes him as having 'gross infantile autistic trends. This is a typical schizoid weakling, whose potential intelligence is far above his ability to behave' and attention is drawn to the 'very overcrowded home'.

One has the impression that Ronald's future is now in the balance. If we fail to give the right amount of support and direction to his potential abilities, he might well join the vast number of delinquents and remain a liability to society. On the other hand, success in training may lead to full utilization of his potential and turn him into an 'asset', not much worse or much better than millions of other average people.

Robert is one of ten children in a working class family and is the youngest boy. He attended an ordinary elementary school and obtained employment at seven different firms during the subsequent three years, earning on the average £2 10s.

Whilst he was still at school, he committed five offences at various times (larceny, housebreaking

and stealing) which brought him before the juvenile court. When nearly seventeen he was committed, in company with three other older boys of notoriously bad reputation, for school- and house-breaking, and sent to a Remand Home and from there to Monyhull. Three of his four surviving brothers have a record of delinquency.

When tested at the remand home his mental age was found to be 10.8 with an I.Q. 71 and high-grade mental defect was suggested. The subsequent psychiatric examination reported that he was well below average intelligence which was associated with social immaturity. The remand home described him as mentally very dull, extremely slow in understanding the simplest directions and in expressing himself clearly. He gave the impression of being 'tough', ill-mannered and churlish. He had little sense of responsibility, started his work with enthusiasm and good intentions, but did not 'stick to' even the simplest routine job because he could not concentrate and was easily distracted. He could not be relied upon to complete the smallest job and reprimand or appeal left him unmoved.

The instructors at the Training School gave him, however, a completely different testimonial. Having put him to metalwork, they found him extremely keen to work, never allowing himself to be distracted, the first to start and the last to leave, quiet and reserved, never joining in discussions but listening intently, honest and straight forward with a strong sense of humour. 'His work is of the very highest quality, repetition represents improvement. He works a solid eight-hour day. Very practical minded and able to turn out a first class job without any supervision.'

The Wechsler Intelligence Test gives him an I.Q. of 79. This and other tests show that his approach to concrete problems is good, that he 'plans carefully, works deliberately, is able to isolate the "trouble area" in problems, and sticks to them until they are solved. He is persistent and flexible in his approach and showed no sign of breaking down under more difficult situations.'

The drawing test shows elastic control, signs of insecurity and definite immaturity. The Rorschach interpretation bears this out, indicating in addition responsiveness to outside stimulation and good contact with the environment.

The interesting feature of this particular case is the vastly different emotional and intellectual

reaction pattern in varying institution environments, demonstrating clearly the importance of correct and imaginative institutional approach.

William, the fourth of five children, has been certified at the age of twelve as being incapable of receiving benefit from instruction in a special school or class. Within six weeks he was twice before the juvenile court for stealing (he was then just over twelve years of age) and on examination was found to be feeble-minded and admitted to an institution. At that institution his conduct was poor, he was insolent to the nurses and troublesome, fighting in the wards and showing violent temper outbursts. Until his transfer to Monyhull he was described as idle and aggressive.

At the Training School, he was promoted to the most skilled jobs after successful trials in others. By the staff he was described as clean and tidy, well behaved, always willing, industrious and reliable.

At present he is nineteen and has spent nearly seven years in institutions. His Wechsler I.Q. gave him a Mental Age of $10\frac{1}{2}$ and an I.Q. 73. The psychologist found his manual ability good, though his approach to problems is of the trial and error type and shows deficiency in planning ahead. The drawings characterize him as immature and mother-dependent, finding support in a rigid control. His Rorschach suggests that this control is too brittle to last. He has adjustment difficulties though at present he tries his best to conform to demands. The psychiatric summary refers to him as a mild schizoid personality with marked homo-sexual tendencies who is at present too immature to be trusted outside. Prognosis is good.

Conclusions

Various important points arise from this description of a pioneer attempt in Mental Deficiency work. Most important of all seems the recognition that intellectual inferiority does not damn a man. The examples given show imbeciles working successfully at their jobs and earning full marks, whilst comparatively much more intelligent lads may find it difficult to settle down to an adequate performance. Occupational training has to be adapted to the capacity of the individual defective and must not be planned according to vague general notions based on the experiences of stagnant institution routine. The

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training has in many cases to avoid the nowadays familiar 'occupational therapy' approach but must become a reality-centred industrial or agricultural therapy. Too much is blamed on to the fact of intellectual inferiority and too little is done because of this alleged cause of failure. The real problem, the emotional reaction to failure, defeat and the ensuing disappointment, as well as the immense handicap of environmental influences is constantly overlooked. The fact that a neurotic mechanism functioning on a lower mental level needs *treatment* has not even been recognized by the majority of institution authorities.

There is no doubt that we have been very complacent about this subject of mental deficiency, partly because of ignorance, partly because one does not like to be reminded of the skeleton in the cupboard, and last but not least because it did not seem to merit the expenditure of trouble, time and money to do anything about this matter. The complexity of modern life poses too big a problem for those with low mental endowment to come to terms with it without assistance. If only, instead of squandering money in building bigger and bigger colonies to provide life-long pensions and lodgings for a proportion of the population, some of the money were used in a concentrated effort to salvaging those borderline cases I have been talking about, who are people whose social adaptation is touch and go, society might have some economic return for its money.

Rehabilitation is not done merely by enlarging the scope of pioneer experiments such as this described, by giving more machinery and more assistance within the framework of the present-day colony. Such would be mere patchwork, nay eyewash. A new approach is needed, largely

independent of the colony, though still utilizing its medical and psychological services, and executed in a small place where the individual work is carried out without the danger of being swept away by the institutional tide. This small, self-contained and fairly independent unit should serve several purposes but should most of all function as a research unit. Mental deficiency represents a meeting ground for many sciences, in particular medicine, psychology, sociology, biology and education. It seems more than justified to undertake a determined attempt at separating, studying and salvaging the group of 'possibles' instead of giving in to the determinism of I.Q. results. It seems certainly not justifiable for educationists to stand aside as soon as a child has reached his sixteenth year and pass on the work of socializing the defective to the efforts of one branch of science alone. Considering how much thought, painstaking effort and preliminary research goes into the design and constant improvement of small and comparatively unimportant articles produced by industry, it is certainly not asking too much to demand that the same amount of interest and ingenuity be used in relinquishing the traditional approach and in designing a programme where the results of practical research and speculative thinking can be combined, tested, modified and adopted in the day-to-day training of socializable defectives.

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NOTES ON BOARDING OUT

AS A POSSIBLE FACTOR IN RE-EDUCATING MALADJUSTED YOUNGSTERS

Ernest Jouhy, Director of the Medico-Pedagogic Institute, La Forge, Fontenay-aux-Roses, Seine, France

THE majority of children and adolescents placed under the care of medico-pedagogic institutes in France are socially maladjusted through one or more of the following factors :

- (i) Frustration or emotional shock caused by misunderstandings, desertion or breakdown of the home situation ;
- (ii) Minor mental retardation giving rise to serious failure in school subjects ;
- (iii) Retarded or uneven physical development

(this last factor occurs less frequently than the two preceding ones).

Their social maladjustment is usually aggravated by the following :

- (i) Reactions within the family circle ;
- (ii) Discouragement at school ;
- (iii) A passive or aggressive defence on the child's part against pressure exercised by the home and the school in order to better his behaviour and social effectiveness.

In some children these factors lead to anger, lying, truancy, thieving at home, wilful destructiveness, ganging-up with other youths for either truancy, theft, or acts of hooliganism. Other youngsters may, on the contrary, react by withdrawal, laziness, complete inability to make any progress in one or several school subjects, dirtiness, incontinence.

In the case of almost all these young people, whether they take the aggressive or the regressive way out of their difficulties, we find: A lack of social feeling for children of their own age, a lack of moral courage, short-sightedness as regards the results of their behaviour, a tendency to replace effort by skrimshanking, lack of interest in the adult world, lack of any positive social ambition, flight into a primitive, imaginary world of the Tarzan type, the main ingredients of which are physical strength, chance and the free expression of the instincts, and in which none of the real problems which make up the life of the normal adolescent or adult play any part at all.

The present type of medico-pedagogic institute in France brings a noticeable improvement to these young people by the following means:

- (i) Removing them from the social setting in which their troubles first began;
- (ii) Setting up an emotionally more neutral and more patient adult framework for their lives;
- (iii) Presenting the youngster with schooling or technical training which demands of him sustained effort in conformity with his powers;
- (iv) Means are taken to promote the psychic—and learning—health of the child based on a carefully observed knowledge of his mentality.
- (v) Medical, psychological and social observation enables the Centres to plan a régime of feeding, medical treatment, physical and mental activity, rest, games and leisure employments that will really favour his well-being.

From these measures there result:

- (i) A relaxation of negative tensions with all their train of reactions—regressiveness, lying, anger, truanting, etc;
- (ii) Encouragement to positive effort at school or at the place of technical training or apprenticeship;

- (iii) An amelioration of his own habits, towards learning to look after his own physical and social well-being;
- (iv) The organization of suitable games, and of means for him to express his emotional and psychological difficulties by drawing, modelling and singing;
- (v) By enabling him to learn to manage his own affairs, by the atmosphere of confidence that surrounds him and by the sharing of responsibility for the smooth running of his group life, we obtain in addition a positive modification of his emotional and feeling make-up (a modification which is favoured in certain cases by individual or group psycho-therapy).

On the other hand, the medico-pedagogic institutes of the kind now prevalent in France:

Cannot create the intimacy and emotional warmth of a family setting, not even that of an adoptive family; it isolates the child from normal social living; it creates for him the illusion that the *régime* artificially arranged for him at the medico-pedagogic institute is normal outside the institute; it makes the child indifferent to taking care of his material surroundings (food, clothing, furniture) because of the social anonymity of all the material possessions of his group.

On account of all the reasons outlined above, we are proposing:

To combine the advantages of the medico-pedagogic institute with those of boarding-out.

To envisage the re-education of these youngsters in progressive stages, and to offer La Forge, one of the existing medico-pedagogic institutes, for experiment into the medical and psychological usefulness of our thesis and into its financial practicability. Here in outline is our scheme of reorganization:

First Stage

The child is placed in a medico-pedagogic institute in the same conditions as at present. For a limited time (the average will probably be about three months) he lives there as a boarder, has his total schooling there and is under observation and becomes accustomed to the house and its ways.

Second Stage

The child is boarded-out in a family near to La Forge. He comes to spend the whole day at the medico-pedagogic institute, does all his

lessons there and shares in all its activities until seven o'clock at night. He then goes back to his foster family, has his evening meal there, shares in the evening activities of the family, and goes to sleep there. His foster family takes an interest in his progress, in his clothing and general appearance, and, of course, he takes part on Sundays in any family occupations or pleasures. The medico-pedagogic institute looks after his schooling and keeps an eye on his medical, psychological and social progress. If the boarding-out plans break down the arrangement can be brought to an end at the request of the foster family but he will find an immediate welcome back at the medico-psychological institute. In this case the child becomes a boarder with us again.

Third Stage

The child is able to take up his schooling again, either at a state school or at a technical school while still living with his foster family and still receiving the medical and social services of the medico-pedagogic institute until the moment when his re-education is complete and he can take his normal part either in his original family or, if this is no longer available to him, in the ordinary adult world.

Such a research project could be carried out given the following conditions :

(1) The medico-pedagogic institute will seek for about twenty suitable foster-homes and will begin the boarding-out of each child at the point when he first begins to show the symptoms of 'institutionalism' ;

(2) It agrees upon a boarding-out fee with the family (from 4,000 to 4,500 francs a month for supper and bed and for the four Sundays. His linen and laundry will be provided by the medico-pedagogic institute). The medico-pedagogic institute will take full responsibility for paying for the boarding-out.

By increasing the number of children cared for by the

medico-pedagogic institute from 45 to 55 without much corresponding increase in salaries or general maintenance costs at the institute, it should be possible to carry out this programme without increasing the daily allowance already made. This allowance, paid by the Authorities, would continue to be about 790 francs. Comparative reports on the progress of the children living in the institute itself, and on that of the children boarded-out will give the interested authorities a chance to estimate the value of boarding-out in the total re-education of these maladjusted children.

[Mr. Jouhy and a strong committee of experts hope to start the experiment outlined above on September 3rd. They have to guarantee the lease on the house, and are still in need of about half the £1,500 required for this purpose. All the necessary equipment, both domestic and educational, is already in their hands. If any readers of 'The New Era' would like to become Associates or Friends of La Forge (donation £1 and £5 respectively) I should be glad to give them further particulars.—ED.]

DARLINGTON TRAINING COLLEGE

(University of Durham Institute of Education)

ONE YEAR COURSE IN NURSERY SCHOOL EDUCATION

A One Year Course in Nursery School Education is offered at the above College, beginning in September. It is open to Graduates, and to Qualified Teachers with at least five years' experience, and is of special interest to women who wish to qualify themselves for posts of responsibility in the Nursery field.

The Course leads to the Diploma in Nursery School Education of the University of Durham Institute of Education.

Tuition Fee : £100.

Ministry of Education Grants for serving teachers are available up to a maximum of £300.

Graduates : Tuition and Maintenance Grants.

Applications are also considered from overseas students.

Application forms from The Principal, Training College, Darlington, Co. Durham.

Book Reviews

The Allocation of Primary School Leavers to Courses of Secondary Education—First Interim Report. A. F. Watts, M.A., D.Lit. and Patrick Slater, M.A. (*National Foundation for Educational Research in England and Wales, Publication No. 2. Newnes. 7/6*).

This interim report concerns itself, as would be expected, more with stating and exploring questions than with answering them. In the introduction the authors state that the Foundation has, 'from the outset, held the view that a primary object of all its research work is to be of assistance to L.E.A.'s . . . and that the problem of educational guidance is of the highest priority.' They go on to say that 'educational guidance depends on the revelation of children's needs and the provision of courses to satisfy those needs; the two pieces of work are inter-dependent.' Faced with such a field, it is understandable that they chose, as a beginning point, to seek to improve efficiency in the limited sphere of allocation to secondary education at 11 plus, rather in the spirit of the housewife who begins her spring-cleaning by turning out one drawer. If she decides on a complete re-organization of the house it may be that her arrangements will be superseded, and in the same way the Foundation's work, however good of its kind and however welcome, may well turn out to have involved some waste of effort when we turn our attention to gearing what we provide in school more closely to children's needs. Further, there is the possibility, even a danger, that more effective selection, with too little consideration of the suitability of provision, will further harden the pattern and that the ultimate aim, 'to define the extent to which children vary in their abilities and interests at 11.0 and hence to determine the range of courses required to provide secondary training suited to various types of child', will not be put forward by research on selection. In fact, however, struggles such as those described in the report to find ways of measuring practical ability lead inevitably to reflections on the curriculum: for instance, it was found that many tests of practical ability were vitiated because of the differences of opportunity children have had in gaining practical experience, and this led to the recommendation that junior schools should give pupils 'plenty of exercise in the greatest possible variety of

useful everyday activities so that they may learn for themselves and reveal to their teachers something of the practical, artistic and social potentialities within' so that 'we may be able to sample their abilities in this field as Binet did in the field of general intelligence' in the hope of establishing some general factor. It is also pointed out, in the discussion of the use of teachers' ratings, that 'where the course followed is of the traditional kind with a heavy emphasis on class instruction in the three R's, we can hardly expect the teacher to be intimately acquainted with the potentialities of their pupils in other directions.' The next step, one would hope, will be to investigate the uses to which these varying abilities can be put in secondary education.

These struggles lead, too, to the definition of important concepts which have been half known or rashly assumed. The conclusion, for instance from an experiment which was in itself inconclusive, that 'the non-verbal abilities of children at 11.0 may form a series that range from those at one end of the scale that are the expression of the general mental ability to those at the other end that require for their expression the manipulation of concrete materials, and that, in between, lie those abilities that enable their possessors to solve problems involving spatial relationships without the need for the actual manipulation of materials', has cleared the way for further experimenting. This experiment, described in Section II, to establish whether practical ability can be effectively tested at 11.0 was disappointing in that the results emphasized the fact that 'far wider differences appear between children in respect of the characteristic "g" (general intelligence) than in respect of any other characteristic we have found including those we have denoted "F" (practical ability) and "k" (spatial judgment). Variations in these two dimensions are hardly greater than in others to which we can attach no psychological significance.' It is rightly pointed out, however, that even a slight bias, when supported by a child's own interest and the parents' wishes, may be of great significance. Sociological, temperamental and interest factors may, in fact, be of prime importance. (Interesting evidence on this point can be found in the article 'Parents' Wishes in Selection', giving details of the careers of fifty-two 'Grammar School rejects'—odious term—in the T.E.S., 25th May, 1951). The results, too, may have been influenced by the comparatively undeveloped state of

tests of practical ability, the further development of which this research should do much to stimulate. The authors very prudently refrain from going further than saying 'the evidence which emerges indicates the possibility of revealing the presence of practical ability at this age.'

Teachers hope great things of the Foundation: there are welcome signs in this report that the authors have the wood in mind though they are at the moment examining one particular tree. We must trust that they are aware as we are of the dangers traditionally involved in tree study!

M. Brearley

The United Nations and Power Politics. John MacLaurin. (Allen & Unwin. 25/-)

Those who abuse UNO, says the author of this challenging book, are like the man who came home and found his wife and mother quarrelling on the new sofa, and who, determined to stop the quarrelling once and for all, threw the sofa out of the window. It is not the organization, then, but the members of it which require attention.

'John MacLaurin' is the pen-name of a man who has taught and lectured widely on the United Nations, among other subjects, and has been Educational Consultant to the United Nations itself. His information on UNO is therefore reliable. He has been present at numerous sessions of the Security Council and seen at first hand how it functions, and all his facts are documented. This makes it a useful book for teachers on current affairs, for older children who read the newspapers, and for use in school libraries.

The members of UNO have the difficult task of choosing between international co-operation and national sovereignty. They cannot at all times have both.

The author is critical of all the members of UNO—the Americans and British as well as the Russians—and he is critical of the United Nations Charter itself, especially of the impossibility of defining the phrase 'essentially domestic jurisdiction' (Article 2, paragraph 7). Above all, he condemns the fact that most of the decisions of UNO are really only recommendations and are not binding on the members.

The various committees of UNO are examined, and we see how sometimes they produce results and sometimes do not, and how questions of sovereignty and other political motives sometimes prevent them from functioning when otherwise they might. We

are shown the purpose of the Security Council, and of the Technical Committee, the Welfare Committee, and others. And some of the most interesting and important questions which have come before UNO are discussed—Palestine, Berlin, Disarmament, the Colonies, Russian troops in Persia, and so on.

One of the most interesting sections of the book is the straight account of one meeting of the Security Council at which the two 'sides' in the cold war are bargaining for the admission of new members favourable to themselves, and the Ukrainian delegate speaks of trying to implement the principle of unanimity (which too often seems to be forgotten).

'John MacLaurin' has some lively and controversial ideas, but even his most startling statements seem to be well documented. His book is topical, but it is not ephemeral, for it deals with questions which will go on being important.

Moirva Gaster

Problems of Educational Reconstruction. K. G. Saiyidain. (Asia Publishing House, Bombay. Library Edition Rs. 7/- ; Students' Edition Rs. 4/12).

This is No. 1 of *Studies in Indian Education*, edited by the Indian Institute of Education, Bombay. Still a comparatively young man, Mr. Saiyidain has already for some time ranked among India's leading educationists. His new book is worthy of attention in other countries besides India.

The book is divided into three parts: General Principles; New Trends and Approaches; The Education of Teachers. Part I is a revision of Part I of one of the author's earlier books, *The School of the Future* (Allahabad, 1935). Meanwhile, of course, the second World War and the

attainment of Indian freedom have substantially altered the setting. 'During the intervening years', writes Mr. Saiyidain in his Introduction, 'the conviction has grown upon me, with increasing force, that the building up of the "school of the future" is something much bigger and more fundamental than the refurnishing, as it were, of the school interior materially and psychologically. While I still advocate, without any mental reservation, the basic principles which I had then expounded for the creative education of the child's individuality, I realize with much greater poignancy to-day that the school is an integral part of the total social environment and the child's individuality is not nurtured in the school only but is greatly influenced by the total set-up of our socio-economic system and by contemporary ideological currents . . . And the conviction comes home to me that educational reform is, so to speak, more than educational reform—it is also social reform and reconstruction in the widest sense of the word.'

In Part II the author discusses a number of problems pertaining to Rural, Basic, Secondary, Social and Adult Education, and Education for Citizenship. 'It seems to me,' he writes, 'that whatever aspect or stage of education we take up for consideration, there are so many new and exciting things to be done, so many defects to be set right that, for a conscientious, intelligent and contented teacher, there should not be a single *dull* moment in his working day. Anxious moments, yes; exacting responsibilities, certainly; also discouragements—but *not* dullness which is associated with work that is devoid of intelligence, interest and exciting possibilities.' The great contribution to education—no less than to other aspects of corporate life and endeavour—made by Mahatma Gandhi is well

brought out. And the author has a vivid sense of the urgent need for nation-wide adult education in present-day India—and the need to give it a far wider and deeper connotation than that of mere literacy or the three R's. This Section concludes with a wise and necessary chapter on Humanizing Educational Administration.

Part III deals with The Education of Teachers—'not only their technical and professional training but also the general education of their minds, their attitudes and their personality and the vexed question of their socio-economic relationship to society. If their general and professional training is efficient and satisfactory, they will perform their duties intelligently; if the schools and colleges have succeeded in instilling the right *values* in them, they will be conscientious; and if Society and the State have given them a fair deal and assured to them the status that they deserve, they will be contented. It is only when all these conditions are satisfied that we can look forward with any confidence to a progressive improvement in our educational system.'

This book admirably recapitulates the advances made by the New Education twenty to thirty years ago, but which, under the stress of war and post-war tensions, has nowhere yet been satisfactorily consolidated. India is indeed fortunate to possess at this juncture a mind of the calibre of Mr. Saiyidain's, in the vital service of educational rebuilding. Anyone who desires a clear and stimulating picture of the general principles of the New Education will enjoy and benefit from reading this book, which re-states them so convincingly as to arouse wonder that they have not as yet received fuller acceptance. The non-Indian reader will find his own problems pointed and illuminated through being viewed in another setting.

A. C. C. Hervey

TOWARDS A SYNTHESIS OF THOUGHT

FOUR IMPORTANT SOURCE BOOKS

The Commonsense of Science Dr. J. Bronowski. 145 pages, including an index. (Heinemann, London. 8/6).

This is the first volume in a new series to be called *Contemporary Science Books* of which Dr. Bronowski is General Editor and its sound scholarship and lively style give the venture a most promising beginning. The author is here, as elsewhere, thinking aloud on deep problems, but his versatility and gusto make his writing lively without trace of pretentiousness or arrogance. The reader

with little scientific training realizes that here is strong meat but has also a sense of being helped to digest it by one who is concerned that he should both enjoy it and be nourished by it. The style has generally an engaging quality of the extempore confidential kind which one expects from the skilful broadcaster with a purpose and scholarly authority. His broadcast five years ago on the night of the Bikini explosion, had as its title *Mankind at the Crossroads*. This would be an apt sub-title for the brief volume under review, especially in the light of its last and most cogent chapter, *Science, Destroyer or Creator*. Yet it is the author's

mathematical and statistical background which makes this book unique in its grasp of the limitations of the older 'scientific method' whose dead hand is still in evidence in too many of the books used in our schools and colleges.

The Commonsense of Science is a much-needed stimulus to that synthesis of knowledge which has for some years been the prior aim of progressive educationists. The relation between the arts and science is evident throughout and especially in the history of the eighteenth century and the Industrial Revolution. The index of *persons* mentioned in the text is of added

value because it gives the dates of the life-span of each or the approximate period of those of classical antiquity. It seldom has one seen so impressive a parade of witnesses' marshalled in the service of a scientific thesis and never with such a high a proportion of philosophers and men of letters cited in such a useful way.

The first chapter on *Science and Responsibility*, although of only eleven pages, establishes at once the catholicity of Dr. Bronowski's interest and the breadth of the canvas which his design demands. We learn that when the author landed in England at the age of twelve he could speak rather badly only two words of English. This is not to induce in us speculation as to which two they were, but to put a discerning finger on the real nature of the layman's difficulties in grasping the significance of modern science and its recently developed techniques, as well as to perceive their growth out of the earlier kinds of 'scientific method'. Science from its etymology is knowledge and to communicate and popularize it we must have language and literature: but between these two the Sciences Bronowski builds a more brilliant bridge. It is a personal one, for after referring to his early avid excursions into English literature, especially Macaulay and Joseph Conrad; he goes on, 'At bottom the difficulties in facing a strange literature are precisely those which all intelligent people to-day have in trying to make some order out of modern science . . .'

We are daily conscious of 'the diesel engine, the experiment, the spirins, and the survey of opinion . . . at behind them we are becoming conscious of a new importance in science.' From this point of departure Dr. Bronowski takes his readers on a voyage of discovery into the sense of science, through history, philosophy, literature, and the plastic arts until they finally reach the realm of ethics in the last chapter to which we have already referred.

Knowledge of the world 'can be made orderly by human arrangement which consists of putting things in groups of those which seem to be or behave alike.' In this book we find the works of such men as Linnaeus (1707-1778) and Mendel (1822-1884) receiving more attention than they have had of late. The machine in science is a concept with definite properties which can be related, can be reproduced in space and time, and whose behaviour can be predicted.' For Bronowski the notions of prediction and the machines which predictors hold the key to at least the immediate future of science. Knowledge for him can only be conceived as dynamic, the attempt to

establish laws which are static is contrary to the spirit of his scientific thinking. Science even at its boldest does the will of history whose movement it in turn helps to determine. Like civilization and our societies it grows in the larger setting of history.

The years of civilization are fewer than ten thousand yet in this time man has made the world 'from Ur to Radio City, from Confucius and Pythagoras to Rabelais and Einstein.' The era of science in that short and spirited adventure is but a thirtieth part of the whole span of civilization. It has been made in and by the world that took its shape about 1660 when Europe emerged from the nightmare of religious wars.

Science has been made by those new societies and has helped to make them. The world of the Middle Ages was passive and symbolic, seeing the signatures of the Creator in every form of nature. The Modern world has been an active machine since the first stirrings of science among the Italian merchant adventurers of the Renaissance, but it did not become the everyday world of trade until the seventeenth century. We are all aware that human forethought depends on our recognizing or putting some kind of order into the world. As much as book-keeping, government, and doing the week-end shopping, science is an activity of putting order into our experience. So much was true even of the science of Aquinas.

To this was added in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries the new assumption that science is to get rid of angels, blue fairies with red noses, and other agents whose intervention would reduce the explanation of physical events to other than physical terms. At the beginning it was appropriate that the interests of science were astronomy and the instruments of voyage including the magnet. At the Industrial Revolution the interests shifted to power-making and power-using, to extending the strength of man and what he can do in a day's work. This has since remained our interest although in the last century it was electric power replacing steam power. As the instrument makers and engine builders of the eighteenth century showed, our understanding of nature can only be as accurate as the machine parts with which we explore and control her. As the whole progress of quantum physics has shown from the first equations of Max Planck in 1899 to the atomic piles of to-day, our technical success rests on skill and boldness of mind in thinking through the implications of experiment with no regard to our habits of philosophy whether sceptical or materialist. In 1905 Einstein first wrote down the

equations which suggested that matter and energy are interchangeable states. Forty-six years later we command a reservoir of power in matter almost as large as the sun which we now realise manufactures its heat in just this way, by the annihilation of its matter.

Science has entered into the life and structure of society. Deep below the surface, the interdependence of the strands of this web of thought and action has been its feature at every succeeding stage: the radar screen, the indirect heating, and the vitamin pill of our century; or the white bread, leather shoes, cotton dress, and iron bedstead of the Industrial Revolution. The man who makes a living in a kitchen garden in Kent and the man who draws strips about blonde heroines in space-ships equally owe their market to our technical society. If the one is not allowed to employ boys of ten, and the other must spice his cartoons with glib and sexy tortures, that sensibility, good and bad, is largely the creation of science. Human life is social life, there is no science which is not in some part a social science.

An Introduction to Contemporary Knowledge. C. E. M. Joad, M.A., D.Lit. 122 pages, including Introduction and Index. (E. J. Arnold and Son, Leeds. 4/6).

In passing from Bronowski to Joad one leaves the guidance of a scientist's essays into philosophy for that of a philosopher's essays in science. Both writers have achieved some of their popular distinction through the medium of radio but here Dr. Joad hardly evinces the qualities we have noted in regard to the volume by Dr. Bronowski. They were not brought together here for comparison or contrast, however, for that would be unfair when the two books are aimed at publics so different, face problems so diverse, and are offered at prices so incomparable. Dr. Joad is quite circumscribed in addressing his volume to young people between the ages of fifteen and eighteen or at most twenty. He is equally definite and clearly reiterates that he is giving his own personal versions of important opinions and theories; an individual assessment and exposition explicitly avoiding the partisan. Both volumes are highly important and valuable for teachers building a 'total education' which is not to claim that either is entirely suitable to be put in the hands of the student merely for private reading. Dr. Joad's early chapters entitled, *The Physical Universe*, *Life—Its Origin and Development*, *The Past of Man*, and *The Future of Man*, are

short summaries of scientific and cultural thinking which will systematize the reader's body of knowledge from more formal studies. Chapter Five on *Mind and Matter* is very brief indeed and serves as a link between the more factual first group of essays and the more speculative three chapters which follow. Of these the one called *Art and Its Importance* chimes in with one of Bronowski's salient points, the unity of culture. Throughout these seven chapters there are tantalizing foreshadowings of a promised treatment of the deepest problems and the contribution of the faiths of man which is to come last in the chapter on *The Religious View of the Universe*. Perhaps it was these early references which made one eager reader at least feel a certain disappointment with this section.

Man in Society—An Advanced English Course. R. D. Thomson, M.A. 166 pages with Preface and Sectional Bibliographies. (Thomas Nelson and Sons, London and Edinburgh, in their 'Grammar School Series'. 6/-).

This is a 'work book' which can be placed in the hands of the student and will be a useful complement to the volumes already mentioned as a further stimulus to broader concepts and clearer vision. It has exercises which are not only excellent in themselves but suggest lines of approach to work of this kind especially where the topics are highly controversial. It is also a 'teacher's book' which should have a salutary effect on some 'Syllabuses' not recently revised, or dispel some at least of the frustration and bafflement which may be felt by unhappy pedestrians forced to endure long hikes in other people's shoes. The Bibliographies are commendable and certainly fling wide the gates. The 'Extracts' printed are wisely chosen and discreetly used. They draw upon such writers as 'A. D. Lindsay' (as he then was), Sir Richard Livingstone, H. M. Tomlinson, A. N. Whitehead, Quintin Hogg, F. Spencer Chapman, B. Seeborn Rowntree, Dean Inge, and many others. Among its topics are 'The British Character' with sections on Historical Influences, Geographical Influences, Religious Influences, and Criticisms of the British; 'Arts, Old and New'—Painting, Applied Art, Music, Cinema; 'The Art of Living'—Work, Leisure, Personal Relationships, Thinking, Sense of Values, and More Major Pleasures of Life; 'Aspects of Democracy'—Value of Opposition Parties, Hindrances to Democratic Living, Applying Democratic Method—in Industry, in

Schools; 'Science in the Modern World'—Achievements, Scientific Attitude, Future of Civilization, Science and Religion. These last sections certainly link with the Joad and the Bronowski! For the general theory of an educational 'combined operation' and for one detailed and specific application of it to a whole school, there is now:—

The English Subjects Synthesis
F. C. Happold, D.S.O., M.A., LL.D. 125 pages, including a Preface and five black and white charts. (Christophers, 22 Berners Street, London, W.1. 6/-).

This is based on the detailed working and gradual development from the 'Social Studies' conception into an even wider synthesis. Although at Grammar School level the work done both now and over the twenty and more formative and experimental years is so clearly, graphically, and simply described that this is a most suggestive and helpful document for teachers in all types of school, especially perhaps for the Secondary Modern Schools. The expectation of attainment is so refreshingly realist, and the stress so far other than the rather extravagant claims sometimes advanced for 'new ideas' elsewhere, that this is also a book for the administrator and possibly for members of the Inspectorate. Dr. Happold recapitulates briefly here and there, notions which he has already advanced in *The Approach to History, The Adventure of Man* and *This Modern Age*. If this new volume does no more than call the attention of some of our colleagues to his earlier writings it will have been of good service. The methods advocated are so practical and down to earth that one certainly sympathizes with the author's dilemma in trying to find a neater, more effective, and more expressive key phrase than 'The Social Studies Synthesis' which he abandoned. The present title seems to retain many of the disadvantages of its predecessor, but until an apt descriptive name emerges we must be ready to explain without apology the real substance of the body of thought and method behind it. If one could be confident that the ideas here advocated would be widely adopted and adapted, there could be less concern for how they were described in syllabuses and on time-tables. One is tempted to ask whether labels ever counted for much in English—or any—Education. Maybe not all 'Eng. Lit.', even, was so inimical to life and letters as one is often asked to believe.

Ernest L. Fereday

LETTER TO THE EDITOR

Dear Editor,

The Trustees of the Susan Isaacs Memorial Fund think it would interest your readers—many of whom have subscribed to the Fund—to know that the Fund has progressed to the stage when the Trustees can take a definite decision to launch the first Fellowship of £300 in the Autumn of 1952. If a further £250 of capital is subscribed by 1955 it will mean that another Fellowship can be awarded then and subsequently at three yearly intervals. We are, therefore, very much hoping that it may be possible to raise this extra amount and any contributions towards it would be most gratefully received. It is hoped that when the Fellowship is actually in use, further interest may be aroused and subscriptions continue to come in. In this case, it may be possible to have the Fellowship at two yearly rather than three yearly intervals, or to raise the amount of the Fellowship if that proves the more desirable alternative.

The Trustees would not only deeply appreciate any subscriptions received but would be most grateful if you are able to make it known to people who might be prepared to support it. Many students in training colleges and students in the Department of Child Development at the University of London Institute of Education are continuing to make steady efforts on our behalf and there is now a Convenanted Subscription scheme whereby if you promise to subscribe to the Fund for seven years we are able to claim income tax on these subscriptions thereby increasing their value.

Yours sincerely,
Miss D. E. M. GARDNER, M.A.,
Head of Department of Child
Development, University
of London Institute of
Education.

ENSEMBLE

It was with relief and a sense of expectancy that the French party, exhausted after a long night's journey, arrived at Jugenheim this Easter. We had come for a course, organized by the 'Centre d'Entraînement aux Méthodes d'Education Active' and the 'Fédération Internationale des Communautés d'Enfants', and directed by Monsieur Jean Roger. Many countries were represented—Italy, Germany, France, Switzerland, Belgium, Brazil, and England, so that the stress, in this course, was also on international relations.

During the first day, the relations between the different nationalities were mostly those of curiosity, and as

yet, no genuine friendships were forming—due principally to the difficulties of language.

The following day, however, after a good night's rest, we were all curious to see what was going to happen, and very soon we all got to know each other, through the formation of teams, each composed of several nationalities, and through the commencement of the course—songs of the different countries, and games. Some of the participants, unacquainted with the methods of the C.E.M.A., were amazed by the small amount of time allotted to lectures and discussions, for most of the time seemed to be reserved for games, songs, dances, the making of puppets and other such occupations. This amazement did not endure, however, for each of us soon realized that to enter into discussions, it was necessary to know each other well, and that the reason for these games and songs was to enable us to become well acquainted. When we had played, danced and sung together, and travelled to discover a new land, we really began to know each other; friendships were formed, and we could begin discussions on important questions without fear of misunder-

standing or hostility. And it was then that Monsieur Jean Roger spoke brilliantly on New Education methods, discipline, and child psychology.

Some of the fellow members of our course also recounted their experiences—Madame Susanna Rodrigues spoke to us of her work with the sick children of Sao Paulo; Monsieur Giorgio Pagliuzzi explained how he had overcome the difficulties besetting him in his small village school in Tuscany; Madame Rita Fassolo, lecturer of Philosophy at the Training College of Florence explained the activity methods which she employed; Madame Bice Libretti recounted her attempts at new educational methods in her school at Milan; Dr. Franz Hilker traced the history of the New Education in Germany; Monsieur Declerc, delegate of Unesco, described his work in Europe.

For the practical work of the course, we were divided into three groups—painting and modelling with Madame Rodrigues, puppets with Monsieur Roger Boquié, and radio with Monsieur Roland Dhordain of the Radiodiffusion française.

The work of the other two groups had its due reward the last evening

in our appreciation of their most enjoyable puppet show.

Each day between 1-0 and 3-0 p.m. our time was completely free, and this was most important, for it was then, and often in the early hours of the morning also, that animated discussions took place between the people of the different countries, who had even forgotten their true nationality and were no longer Germans, Italians, or French, but people of the world.

Each person returned to his own country with a note book filled with addresses, hoping to meet again all his friends from the different lands, and convinced that an increase in the number of international meetings, where work on definite problems could take place, would be an important means of helping to create world peace. At Jugenheim, our subject of study was the child; and this is probably one which most easily permits us to reach a better understanding. This is perhaps the reason also why this course, which helped us all greatly in our profession, was also successful from an international point of view.

C. Moira Briggs

Directory of Schools

DARTINGTON HALL TOTNES

DEVON

Headmaster: W. B. CURRY, M.A., B.Sc.

A co-educational boarding school for boys and girls from 2-18 in the centre of a 2,000 acre estate engaged in the scientific development of rural industries. The school gives to Arts and Crafts, Dance, Drama and Music the special attention customary in progressive schools, and combines a modern outlook which is non-sectarian and international with a free and informal atmosphere. It aims to establish the high intellectual and academic standards of the best traditional schools.

Fees: £200-£240 per annum.

A limited number of scholarships are available, and further information about these may be obtained from the Headmaster.

KILQUHANITY HOUSE CASTLE DOUGLAS

SCOTLAND

FOR BOYS AND GIRLS 3-18 YEARS

Established in 1940, Kilquhanity House frankly owes its inception to the work of A. S. Neill, who now considers it in the direct line of his own school and that of Homer Lane. It does not, however, cater for problem children. In practice there is an attempt to combine the traditional thoroughness of Scottish education with self-government for the pupils. Activity methods are used throughout, and the teaching staff is qualified to the standards demanded by the Scottish Education Department, which inspects the school. There is ample opportunity for practice in all the creative arts. A small mixed farm is a fundamental part—as distinct from an adjunct—of the school. The diet is on food reform lines, though children do not require to be vegetarian.

Fees: £150-£180 PER ANNUM

Headmaster: J. M. AITKENHEAD, M.A. (Hons.), Ed.B.

Directory of Schools—continued

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Junior School 6 to 11 years

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The School is situated in large grounds and within easy reach of Bristol, so the older girls are able to enjoy many of the advantages provided by a University City. A high standard of scholarship is maintained and at the same time an interest in creative work is developed by the practical and theoretical study of Art and Music. There are weekly discussions on World Affairs and more intensive work on Social and International problems is done by means of voluntary Study Circles.

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is an educational community of some 375 boys, girls and adults. The five school houses provide living and teaching accommodation for children from 6 to 18. It is situated on the edge of the Garden City, amidst rural surroundings and beautiful gardens. There is now a considerable waiting list, and early application is desirable for possible vacancies in 1952.

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PETERSFIELD HANTS (Founded 1893)

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Headmaster : H. B. JACKS, M.A. (Oxon.)

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FARNHAM, SURREY.

Headmaster : KENNETH KEAST, M.A.

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SHERRARDSWOOD SCHOOL

WELWYN GARDEN CITY, HERTS.

Headmaster: J. D. EASTWOOD, M.A. (Oxon.)

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LONG DENE

CHIDDINGSTONE, EDENBRIDGE,
KENT

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THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

ENTRY TO SCHOOL¹

A. Leslie Hutchinson, County Education Officer, Isle of Wight

RESPONSIBILITY for other people's children is never to be taken lightly. The moment of entry to school places that responsibility firmly on the staff of the school, less directly on the Governors or Managers and the Education Authority. From that day the responsibility of the home is supplemented by that of the school. Growing up becomes a co-operative effort of child, parents, the school staff, the Authority and the Ministry of Education. The home, which up to that moment has been the centre of all growth and training, becomes one link in a chain, still the strongest, but only a link. A chain with many links has notoriously its weak point—once the child has entered school, possibilities of difficulties multiply and if they arise they may not be easy to solve, largely because the child has begun to live in two worlds, with two loyalties, two codes of conduct, and two fields of security. These worlds are generally kept widely separate by the child. It is our job to see that the weak link is not the school: yet how easy it is to assume when trouble comes that it is the home!

I propose to look at the problem of entry to school in the first place from a parent's angle. I wonder if you realize what an emotional experience sending a child to school is for the average sensitive parent. A mother feels a bit of herself is missing. However much of a nuisance the child has been at home the void caused by absence takes a lot of getting used to. Anxiety of the unknown creeps in. Will he keep his feet dry this wet morning—will he have his coat well buttoned against the cruel east wind at play—will his manners be knocked out of him by the toughs from across the way? What will his speech be like, will he catch the mumps, is there enough fresh air or too much, will there be adequate supervision to protect him from rough handling by the seven-year-olds—will the Mistress realize he is reading quite long words already—or that he just must not get over-tired and quickly

runs himself out! A bundle of unnecessary anxieties of a neurotic parent perhaps, but very human, very real reactions.

Yet what do the parents hear at the end of the school day; nothing, absolutely nothing. The child returns home, picks up life at the point he left it; plays with his favourite toys, eats his tea, listens to Children's Hour, and so to bed without mentioning his school life. Questions only bring a monosyllabic yes or no. I wonder if teachers appreciate the baffling character of this duality of living to the parents, who suddenly find themselves completely cut off from half their children's life. Gradually, as the days go by, smatterings of information are told, often enough to whet the appetite for more, sometimes of a startling and imaginative nature—more may sometimes be gathered by overhearing conversations with younger members of the family or friends. Yet adding it all up, it comes to precious little, and parents have to realize that from now onwards most of their child's school day is a closed book.

Can the school do anything to ease this situation? The first point is surely to be aware of it, to sense the parents' loss, to appreciate their sense of frustration. There are many small ways by which the wise teacher can ease a parent's mind. Time should be spared to invite the parents of new children to school the term before the child enters. Three or four afternoons given up to this will reap a rich reward. The children will feel they are really growing up, and will look forward with confidence to their first day; mysteries of cloakroom and lavatories will take proportion, a cup of tea at the end of the afternoon, while those children who wish to, have a romp in the hall on play apparatus, will provide a chance to discuss practical points such as uniform, arrangements for bringing children to school and collecting them afterwards, school meals, the practice of the

¹ This was the inaugural address to the Nursery School Association, Easter School, Ventnor, March 27th, 1951.—*Ed.*

school with regard to dressing, advice on clothing, sleep, fresh air and daily habits. Parents can be given the chance of bringing any special points about their children to the Headmistress's notice in private conversation. The Head will have the chance to note those parents who are clearly over protective, opinionated, indifferent, or overburdened. Most important of all, the parent will become a personality in the eyes of the school, the school a humane institution in the eyes of the parent. Of course, all this is largely common practice in many schools already. In some close-knit rural communities where the school is well known to all parents and *vice versa* it is not necessary, but there are still many schools where it would solve many of the initial problems of entry to school.

An open day for the parents of new children towards half-term, when the children are sufficiently at home to welcome their parents and show off their classroom with pride, continues the contact and gives the Headmistress opportunity to have a personal word with each parent to let them know how their child has settled. This is enormously valued. It will help to remove the parents' natural sense of isolation. Where such a word can be given quite casually when meeting a parent in the street or at a social gathering unconnected with school, it will have even more value. More important, however, than such techniques is the atmosphere of the school itself. If children return home increasingly confident, if they clearly enjoy school and are obviously happy there, if their interests widen and skills increase, then parents will quickly be at ease, fears will be forgotten and under cover of the children's radiant happiness, the school can get away with practically anything from raw carrot salad for lunch to unrestrained activities at work.

What is the secret of this atmosphere which breeds confidence in children and parents alike? Surely it lies in the philosophy with which we approach our task. When we open our doors to each new child what is the nature of the welcome that child will receive? Have we each of us decided firmly in our own minds the kind of place we wish our school to be—do we realize the freedom and responsibility English educational methods place on each Headmistress to develop the individuality of her school? It is only by contrasting our approach with that of many continental countries and some of our Dominions,

where the Headmistress is virtually an agent of a Ministry or department, ordered to follow a set syllabus and to use clearly defined teaching methods, that our relative freedom can be appreciated. The responsibility for each school in England truly rests with the Head and she can make it what she will.

I would like to feel that from the start every Headmistress was determined that her school should provide a very friendly welcome for each new entrant; that the tradition of the school was for every older pupil to go out of their way to help the newcomer, and that the staff could rely a hundred per cent. on the co-operation of everybody in the school in this task. I had the great good fortune to enter such a school at one stage in my school life, and it has left a warm and glowing memory ever since. I can see myself now sitting distractedly on a locker in the cloakroom frantically trying to tie up my shoe-laces and watching others triumphantly running into the bright sunshine beyond, when a fellow pupil two years older than myself, a giant if ever there was one both in prestige and stature, came to my rescue, firmly and kindly solved my problems and sent me running out with all the world to the joy of sun, air and a space to run in. That action which I grew to realize was but the tradition of the school has remained as one of the great abiding influences in my education.

If each school should greet its new entrants with a welcome and a helping hand it is important that the number of new entrants should not swamp the staff or throw the school off balance. All of you who are this year grappling with the swollen birth-rate of 1946 and who look nervously to the even greater numbers who will fill your school in 1952, may with justice smile cynically at the suggestion that numbers of new entrants should not be allowed to swamp the school. Yet I am certain that it is of first importance that the staff should quickly get to know the new entrants, who in turn should quickly have the assurance of being known and of easily making friends with their fellows. Imagine the emotional turmoil of leaving a home with its fellowship of four or five to enter a class of forty-five and a school of three hundred. New buildings, increased staff, smaller classes are at the moment out of the question. They just do not exist and cannot be created. In fact, the economic necessities of armed peace may put back for years many of our brightest post-war

hopes of better schools and smaller classes; yet much can be done.

Last summer here on the Island, we suffered from an outbreak of poliomyelitis. It was necessary first to postpone schools from reopening after the summer holidays, and secondly to reopen for the first fortnight of the truncated Autumn term on a half-time basis. The purpose of this was to reduce the chance of infection by doubling the floor area, the air space, the cloakroom and lavatory accommodation for each child. In this primary aim the policy succeeded, but it had an unexpected secondary benefit. Headmistresses found that all the problems of entry to schools became surprisingly easier. Children came in groups of fifteen or twenty according to the size of class rather than in groups of thirty or forty, and they came for half instead of a full day. Class teachers quickly knew their children as individuals, the children found the new experiences at school were within their compass and that to meet half the school was not too frightening an experience. The break from home was less complete and final. The children appeared to settle more quickly, to gain assurance, to feel they were recognized as personalities, to enjoy the companionship of their fellows. Incidentally there was more space for all, a wider choice of apparatus and equipment, less pressure in cloak-rooms and lavatories, greater chance for individual attention in activities. When the fortnight was up and the schools returned to normal, the new entrants took the change in their stride and made good steady progress. There were fewer personal problems of timidity or aggression.

We can learn much from this experiment born of necessity. The entry to school is ideally a gradual process, not a clean cut. At the moment of entry there should be the widest measure of flexibility—rigid legal procedure is not appropriate to the situation. In short, the clause of the Education Act which requires compulsory full-time attendance at five is fundamentally wrong and requires modification. Compulsory attendance yes. It is one of the advantages of our education system as compared with many other countries that compulsory attendance begins at five not six or seven: but the hours of attendance for the first year should be left flexible and ideally should be agreed by the Headmistress with each parent in respect of each child. Children's

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METHUEN

physique, temperaments, home conditions and opportunities vary so enormously that to apply a rigid rule over all at five, and to insist on compulsory full-time attendance at five, fails to recognize all the laws of growth and nature which are so uneven in their incidence.

For many children, full-time attendance at five is clearly the answer, for many others half-time attendance for a term or two would be infinitely preferable. For all probably half-time attendance, either morning or afternoon, is desirable for the first week or two of school life. For a small minority attendance whether half or full-time should be postponed until five-and-a-quarter or five-and-a-half. It is an intensely human personal problem and the law must be made to serve the child. To amend the Act and obtain a clause drafted to combine a firm policy of school attendance with great flexibility requires a national campaign conducted with fervour, vigour and persistence. It requires much of the pioneering spirit which has made the reputation of the nursery school movement. Hard-headed politicians and thick-skinned administrators will regard it as playing with fire. The very rigidity and simplicity of the present law is its strength in the eyes of the lawyer and bureaucrat. Anything which gives wide discretion to the schools is frowned on by the short-sighted and less educated. Yet it is only by such means that education can serve the children and so in the long run the nation.

Authorities must also play their part. It would be little good if, when numbers were reduced by part-time attendance, a reduction in staff undid all the benefits of smaller numbers. A measure of flexibility in the attendance of five-year-olds would relieve some of the nearly overwhelming strain now borne by teaching staff. As the bulge passes on to the junior schools, although some transfer of staff to ease the burdens of junior age groups may obviously become necessary, a stand must be taken to ensure that admission classes return to sensible numbers, not exceeding thirty, and remain there. By this reform, coupled with initial half-time attendance, and the possibility of prolonged half-time attendance for certain children, the bugbear of larger classes would at last be defeated, as far as entry to schools is concerned. This is within the realms of practical possibility in our age of stringency and economic hardship, whereas any wide attack on

the problem of numbers is at the present wishful thinking.

A child on entering school who is offered a hand of friendship and who is not swamped by numbers, will normally settle quickly and will present few personal problems. School life has the enormous advantage that it can offer the child a routine. Have you ever realized how impracticable it is to do this in the modern home? The pressure of the normal problems of housekeeping such as preparing meals, washing-up, cleaning, shopping, are of themselves a major obstacle in providing a background of calm and steady living which is one of the essentials of growth.

Yet these are not the only problems facing a mother. The daily household round never doth run smooth. There is always the unexpected. Tradesmen arrive unexpectedly, visitors call—shortages are discovered which involve extra shopping—all of which take time and upset the day's programme. More decisive still, we are not living in normal times. Power cuts, the rationing system, shortages of medical attention, the increasing cost of living, all force the home to focus on problems of living rather than on problems of childhood.

The normal family has always had to face these problems, though never so acutely as to-day. It has only been the small percentage of families able to afford a nurse and a nursery who have ever established a child centred routine in the home. The morning divided between play, first in the nursery, then in the garden, and a rest in the afternoon, the walk, tea, a short visit to the grown-ups, bed, all as regular as clockwork. Here was routine with a vengeance, but routine which few can now afford, nor was the price always worth the payment. The middle-class nursery provided many psychological problems, and could degenerate into a vicious institution.

A reasonable measure of routine and order is the hallmark of a good school and entry to such an orderly society is essential for a child's security. It is of course general practice, and there is no need to stress details. Its efficacy depends on the imagination with which it is applied and the variety of activity it permits. We may in England have some way to go in encouraging our staff in the construction and use of apparatus. There is a danger that we rely on manufactured apparatus rather than using our ingenuity with the fundamental play materials

always to hand. The Americans have perhaps developed a greater enterprise in these matters than is shown by the average English teacher.

The great value of adequate routine is that it provides a background which will enable children who do not easily fit into school to master their own problems with the minimum interference from the teacher. Regular and varied opportunities for 'doing' soon captivate the child who at first prefers to stand on the touchline and watch, or is actively hostile. The art of the teacher is so often to ignore and let the child adjust himself. Yet this can only be effective where the class is well ordered and life secure. New entrants also respond when they realize that much of the responsibility for tidiness and cleanliness in the classroom is placed on them. In such an atmosphere of regularity, activity and responsibility, new entrants' problems are few and far between.

Finally we come to the central problem of our age, which affects education at all points from entry to school onwards. How are schools to meet the challenge to the freedom of mind and spirit which assails us from every quarter?

I believe that each individual who grows up in security and freedom will, by free choice, surrender his own rights in order to serve his fellows, and so of his own choice forge a society which is an amalgam of giving and receiving, of sacrifice and expression, of respecting the rights of others and pride in personal powers and inheritance, of eccentricity and order, of free, vital, imaginative, creative thought and the discipline of living under the eye of eternity. The teaching technique of those who believe this, is the recognition of personality, the realization that true learning comes to those who, given opportunity, fail and fall but try again, that order is but a means to an end, that discipline is a matter of responses to responsibility not to a word of command. The aim of the school must ever be to respect individuality, to serve personality and to make possible the growth of the whole child, free and alert in body, mind and spirit, to serve his age and generation. Only if entry to school means entry to a society imbued with this faith in freedom can democracy survive, and modern man master his own material and scientific achievements.

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STARTING SCHOOL IN DENMARK

Birgita Lindvad, Teacher at the Carolineskolen, Copenhagen

My work with small children has shown me certain wishes and attitudes common to almost all of them on their first day at school: they are eager to learn; they expect to meet with new experiences at school; they are excited at the thought of being with other children; they feel that now that they are school-children they are no longer babies, that is to say, they have perhaps a vague longing for certain rights and duties. (Some children have more special needs, are longing to find, for example, a mother- or father-substitute.) The school, too, makes certain claims on its pupils, which are not always in accordance with their own wishes. For example, they will be expected to become efficient, to work, to sit still, to remain silent for long stretches of time, to conform to certain rules. If children are to benefit from their school life, all their needs must be met, and with as little frustration as possible.

Only with a certain amount of anxiety do I describe my way of working. Very often, when describing what one really does, one is misunderstood—sometimes most by those to whom one's work most appeals. It is as though these feel it their duty to model themselves entirely on what they see others do—an aggravating process, which they try to escape by pointing out superficial difficulties such as the scarcity of suitable material, the size of classes, out-of-date furniture and equipment, unhelpful headmasters, unsympathetic authorities. If some detail in a colleague's work appeals to one, I think one should direct one's attention less to the form of the work than to the ideas behind it. If one agrees with these, then perhaps it may be worth while to ask oneself whether, or to what extent, the method used is an essential expression of the fundamental ideas, and whether another method could not be equally adequate. Having done this, one will find that difficulties no longer

pile themselves up, for now one is free to devise a method which suits one's own circumstances, and indeed one's own enthusiasm discovers possibilities where one never dreamed they existed.

Children's Desire for Knowledge

The children's desire to learn has always been and still is the meeting place for their wishes and those of their teachers. But the teacher of to-day no longer takes it for granted that the school curriculum and the children's desire for knowledge coincide. I have noticed that, when children first start school, they have no quarrel with what the school requires of them. It is as though children have made up their minds that school is the place where they can learn to read and write and do sums, as well as offering a great many other queer things that they do not understand: and a good many of them hope to learn all this at once, on the very first day. Most of the children have been persuaded by parents and others to believe that all these things will interest them.

I had intended to begin by letting the children play together so that they should get to know each other and me. All that I meant to offer them besides play was certain kindergarten-school occupations, in order to make the change-over to school life as mild as possible. But the precon-

ceived attitude toward school which I found in the children obliged me to abandon this plan. So on the first day at school I gave each child a primer, and on each of the following days they received a new book—a drawing book, a copy book, a writing book for individual work, and some of them an arithmetic book. Otherwise the first days were spent in games and tests for newcomers in reading and arithmetic.

Working hours instead of Lesson hours

However, the children soon returned to forms of work more natural to them, that is



Taking their own drawers

manual work. In order that each child's work should be directed by his own personal interests, I made no time-table until the end of the first year. Then the children themselves asked for one and we drew it up together and wrote it on the black-board. It soon became clear, however, that those who most eagerly demanded a set time-table were those who had the greatest difficulty in conforming to one, and this (the second) year, no one has yet asked for a time-table, so the class plans its work day by day.

Lessons in the first class were a variegated sight: everything except clay modelling and painting with poster colours took place at the same time. Reading, arithmetic, writing, drawing, paper-cutting, toy-making (out of odds and ends), plaiting, raffia work, weaving, knitting, sewing (on cardboard and rags) went on at the same time. Sometimes I went round and helped the children, but usually I did as the class preferred and remained in my seat and they came to me. They soon learned to queue up just as they do for the seesaw at a kindergarten school. Most days I had a time-table of my own: one lesson I heard the children read; another I would check their writing or organize a new field of work, while each child was busy with his own particular work. I should like to stress that *manual work has far more value to the child than many of the didactic games* that call for such intensive preparation and which consequently discourage so many teachers from taking up Individual Teaching. My class inherited a set of didactic games, but the children soon lost interest in them. Instead they worked at one subject for some time, without supplementary material, and then turned to manual work and, while engaged in this, a certain maturation seemed to take place, one which gave them renewed interest in their more formal school subjects.

Children's Desire for Experience

This I tried to satisfy both inside and outside the classroom. From the beginning of the first year I took the children out a lot. At one time I had as assistants two students who were being trained as leisure-time teachers, and sometimes I made use of bigger children, so that the class could be divided into small groups of eight. We had only one rule, but that a very strict one, as breaking it meant losing the right to take part in future trips: no child must leave the pavement

without permission. In this way it was possible when on walks to allow the children to go about freely.

We did the usual tours: the Zoo, the Fire Station, a building site, shops, playgrounds, and so on, and in the Spring we went out for a picnic in the woods. This outing was a joint trip between our class and a Sixth Form who were particularly keen because they had taken lessons beforehand in the care of small children.

The big boys and girls divided the small ones between them, so that each 'daddy and mummy' had one child or two, and on the picnic the families were allowed to do more or less as they pleased. Some played together, others sun-bathed and bought sweets and ice-creams, others went for short walks on their own. Some came with me for a Nature-History walk where we saw dragonflies coming out of their chrysalises. It was a fascinating sight to see small girls and boys standing in the Spring sunshine and, on their backs, shoulders, and little chubby fingers, enormous weak dragonflies, their glittering wings still moist and crumpled.

I have done a good deal to create a cosy and, at the same time, lively atmosphere in the classroom itself. Early in the year we bought an aquarium with tropical fish. The children took part in the shopping, helped to rinse the sand and arrange and look after the aquarium. When Spring came, we found a large box, and here the children planted crocus, snowdrops, and other Spring bulbs. Besides our 'garden' we had a clay pig and grew watercress on his back for the children's lunch. For some months the class had four parakeets in a cage. The children had chosen parakeets as they are known to be untidy and noisy, and to-day when some of the youngsters are particularly noisy, someone says: 'You are a real parakeet.' The love affairs and family quarrels of these birds were subjects of great interest and caused many a fruitful discussion.

Almost every day we found time for a chat or for making plans, listened to a fairy-tale or to someone reading a story, and sometimes did a little spontaneous acting. The children are greatly interested in geography. We have pretended we were little 'earths' revolving round ourselves and round the sun. On the globe we have covered Denmark with the tip of our little finger, comparing its size with that of other countries. *Children on Voyages*, a book by Ellen Siersted,

met with success. In History we have treated the Stone Age. After a visit to the State Museum we made a little museum of our own, with drawings and clay models, and for some time in our spontaneous acting we were pre-historical man. On our school radio we performed 'Little Red Riding Hood' as a radio-play.

Social Maturity

When two of the youngsters have had a fight and one of them has appealed to me, I have often felt indignant on his behalf. But after listening to the other side of the story and hearing: 'Yes, but he started it', I have felt perplexed. Therefore I have found it best to abandon any direct participation in the children's social difficulties.

I have hoped to guide them by arranging the classroom and their work so that it was possible for them to make friends, if they wished to and were able to do so. On the other hand it has not been possible for me to help the children over their problems with themselves and with their home environment, even when it has been clear that these were obstacles in their efforts to make contact with others. (Contact with the grown-ups is still, of course, the most important one for small children.)

The first year many of the children were emotionally dependent on me. Some of them were insatiable in their demands on me, and at a class meeting for parents we discussed how parents could help their children by finding more time to be with them, talk to them and have common adventures, such as picnics arranged especially for the children. During lessons I did what I could to satisfy them emotionally. We had 'cosy corners' and played together. They brought all their work to me as often as they pleased; a few who seemed to need more personal attention were allowed to stand beside my table as long as they cared to. I had to overlook many 'borrowed' pencils and pens, for a time I even had to leave off having assistants, because the children's need for contact became

anxiety-ridden if there were different grown-ups active in the room at the same time. But now, in their second year, the children appear less dependent on me, more taken up with their equals and more objective towards their work.

Class arrangement

For a long time in the beginning of the first year the children were divided into two groups, twelve in each, which was a great advantage. The children had more pleasure in each other's company, it was easier to satisfy their excessive need for grown-up attention, they learned more quickly and more easily. The children sat together in small groups of four or six, and sometimes the whole group at one table. There were no fixed places. There was a chest of drawers in which each child had his own drawer, and when they came into the room in the morning they took their drawer and pushed it under the table at which they wished to sit. As only half the class was present at once, it was possible to move during the day and now, in their second year, the children may move if those involved can agree to the move.

The children are allowed to talk while working; this, however, is supposed to take place in a quiet tone. Needless to say, it seldom does! Only occasionally are children quiet: when concentrating hard or when excited, when listening to a story or when under rigorous discipline. If

it is necessary to use force, I find it best to use open force, that is to say, give an order. Children are not disturbed by noise, at any rate the children at our school are very noisy and they look queryingly at anyone who asks them to soften their voices. So I seldom tell the little ones that they disturb each other by loud talk. I tell them that they must not talk so because it disturbs my work with the group round my table, or that, at a school where there are many people, people would not be able to stand the noise. Besides sitting in groups and talking together, it is an unwritten rule that small



'I'll help you knit'

people may help one another. If I have not time to give someone the advice they want, as a rule I tell them to ask one of their classmates. It is amusing to hear them checking each other's reading or arithmetic tables, or to see some little girl reach out for a boy friend's knitting, saying, 'Come over here. I'll help you.'

Most of the children live far apart—the school not being a district school. So, in order that they might enjoy each other's company, I often took them to a park to play, and sometimes we went into the school play-ground while the bigger classes were doing lessons.

Group Work

In between our individual training we had a good deal of group work. In Arithmetic we had a grocer's shop with goods and cardboard coins. At present it is run as a store with shop assistants, cash desk and a parcel counter, where the bills are checked. Sometimes it has amused the children to work together at painting a big picture; once five boys modelled a house of clay—some of them fabricated bricks while others did the building. But the most inspiring group work we had took place in a modelling lesson after a tour of the Zoo. A couple of children decided to model some of the animals they had seen. The idea spread like lightning. One child made an animal and ran over and put it in a clay cage on the material table (a special table for materials in use or for exhibits). At once he got a new idea for another animal.

All fear of not being able to make what one wanted to, or of what one had made not being good enough, had disappeared. Everyone was working and soon the whole Zoo was there, all complete with fence, entrance with ticket office, zoo-keepers, lions, elephants, peacocks, bears, monkeys, snakes, camels, a woman sitting on a bench, trees of twigs standing in a lump of clay, moss as grass, painted lakes with clay swans, sand on the paths, signs on the cages—and, swaying festively on high, a yellow sun of clay on a knitting needle.

The most important social motive is the joy of company. Whatever we do, I do not believe we can teach a child how to become a social being, but I hope to succeed in affording him many opportunities of discovering that it is fun to be one of a large group, pleasanter than to be alone. What better motive could anyone have for

adjusting themselves to others? When one of the children no longer wishes to be together with the others, this is considered quite natural, and the child finds something else to do on his own, something which amuses him more.

The Rights and Duties of Small Children at School

In the classroom there are certain matters over which the children have some right of decision. I cannot say they are allowed to decide these things wholly themselves as our school is not a free school.

They are allowed to dispose of their own belongings. I very seldom pass remarks on how they treat them. Books and other things they borrow at school, however, they must treat according to the wishes of the school, i.e. as I tell them.

To a certain extent they plan their own work, naturally not without directions or suggestions; sometimes there may even be orders. Rather than use suggestion to make a reluctant child want to do a thing, I resort to an open and less dangerous 'You have to.' Of course it is not always possible to avoid suggestive methods. We who disagree with punishment or exaggerated praise and blame, and who, by the help of Individual and Group Teaching, aim at standards of learning even better than those of authoritarian schools, tend perhaps to misuse our power of suggestion to a greater extent than others do. For this reason we ought to be particularly on our guard, and an investigation into the value of suggestion and its possible limitations in teaching would serve a good purpose.

In certain disciplines such as Reading for amusement and Arts and Crafts, the children are left free to choose for themselves, but so as to help them with the planning of their formal work, I have given them some squared control-cards. On the left-hand side of one of these are the names of the subjects, and every time a child has done a page of Reading, Writing, or Arithmetic, he puts a cross next to the name of the subject. Every fortnight the cards are collected and the columns of crosses coloured. In this way each child is able to control his own work and see whether he has neglected any particular subject. This control of the child's diligence and to a certain degree of his interests I transfer to my private record-book, where I also keep note of the children's stage of work. No great comparing of work-cards takes place among the children, as



Ability to read—a social asset

in the class we have often agreed that these are for each child's own private benefit and that school work has nothing to do with running a race. Even one of the most ambitious little boys remarked happily the other day, 'I'm doing much better now at Arithmetic than I was doing some time ago.'

Duties

Why is the word 'duty' like the taste of a bitter medicine which we are forced to swallow if we are to become better?

Of course it can never be anything but a bitter duty when, after only a short night's sleep, one has to get up at 6.30 a.m. in order to be at one's work in time; but if one is fond of one's work this is but a passing discomfort which experience can help one to overcome. Is it not possible that our greatest aversion to the word duty is caused by the negative way in which we have been brought up to it?

At school I do my best to turn what the children have to do into something they care to do. By doing small tasks, they often experience the joy of completing a piece of work. A little trick, such as letting them change the colour of their

wool while knitting, can give them the same feeling of achievement and can help them later to finish a bigger task. When a child has been engrossed in work, I have made it a habit to try not to force him to change over to something else, and in this respect our special system of breaks between lessons has been a support. Instead of the usual ten minutes break between each lesson, we have only two during the day, one of fifteen and the other of twenty minutes. This arrangement avoids an unnatural, erratic rhythm of work, and makes the breaks long enough to give the children time for play, instead of merely

interrupting and confusing them.

In the class we have various pleasant social duties. The pets must be looked after, the pencils kept sharpened, the borrowing and returning of pencils controlled, materials must be brought out and put back in their places, and so on. Once, when I had been away for some time with another class, the children had made a record-book of their own and in this they had kept account of absent members and of the milk money, so that everything was in order on my return.

The look of the classroom, however, still does not interest the class. Tidying up at the end of the day is still a bit of a problem; but if I am absent from school I never need worry about the birds or fishes—even if there is no food for them the children see to it that it is bought.

The Claims of the School

By striving to make work interesting and important for the children, by varying materials, by using children's love of play, by not disturbing them when in activity, I have hoped to give my children a chance of developing their faculties and of becoming more efficient.

We no longer demand that children should sit

still, as we know it to be alien to the nature of the child and therefore harmful. During the beginning of the first year I eliminated difficulties by having only half the class present at a time. This made it easy for them to move about without bumping into each other and the furniture. To make good floor space for the children to move about during their work and for acting and meetings, I had the tables along the three walls; on the window wall we had our material table, animals and plants, news-board and teacher's table. Thus the middle of the floor was free, and here almost every day we had our discussion circles.

It is unnatural for children to be silent for any length of time and therefore a waste of valuable time to force them to be so. The class aims at quiet conversation, but as yet has only succeeded for very short periods, and as long as the noise is not seriously troublesome, I prefer not to take direct action.

In many indirect ways I have tried to hush the noise. I have found that a simple thing such as order on the shelves and in the cupboard has a calming effect on the children, just as they are easily influenced by one's own state of mind,

temper, and tone of voice. To change from one material or one kind of work to another can ease down a class, while interrupting them whilst they are concentrated on something can have a disorganizing effect. The children are still fairly noisy when working on their own, but in the discussion circle they listen to each other in complete silence, a state of order which is almost impossible to achieve in any of the older classes! Should a couple begin a private conversation, there are always a few of the others who demand quiet, so that they can hear what is being said.

Rules of Order

Beyond the rule for quiet when anyone is speaking, the children have not co-ordinated in the making of rules. We have discussed the school rules and discovered the logic behind them, but they are still a necessary nuisance to which the children have to conform because they attend the school. The keeping of them has not given rise to any particular difficulties, however, maybe because the children enjoy going to school, and when grown-ups are nice, one allows them certain absurdities.

Small children can be touchingly tolerant.

A NURSERY GOES HOSTELLING

M. C. Marlee, Superintendent of the George Street Nursery School, Sunderland

OUR nursery school is situated on the dock-side and caters for the children, two to five years old, whose mothers work outside their homes.

Last year we were offered a fortnight's holiday for eight children, to be paid for by the Lady Raine Memorial Holiday Fund. Difficulties loomed large at first—which children should we choose? where should we go? would the children be happy away from their mothers? who would go to take care of them? (Something a little like this had been done in pre-war days, but at that time the mothers were not working outside their homes and the whole of the Nursery went to Hadyn Bridge in Northumberland, including staff, plus mothers.) However, the party was made up—eight children, Mrs. Croft our nursery nurse, eight students from the Sunderland Training College, and Mrs. Mollison, a friend and next-door neighbour, as cook. Four of the eight students were with us each week, because all the Nursery students wished to have the experience.

One student stayed the full fortnight to help keep continuity.

Now I had envisaged a country holiday in a farmhouse, but in the end we went hostelling. We hired 'Cliffden', a hostel at Saltburn, from the Darlington Education Committee. It is a large house in its own grounds, overlooking both sea and country. So the children from our nursery have begun, at the tender age of four, to enjoy what hostelling can offer in change of air, scenery, and recreation. I will admit at the outset that a 'youth hostel' is not an ideal nursery. The beds are large and high, with other furniture on a similar scale, the floors and rooms bare and unhomelike. We found that bareness has its advantages for there was ample room for our own small furniture, day beds and play material. The large baths were no disadvantage as the children were used to them, but the showers were high and were not enjoyed by the children, so we ceased to use them.

This holiday took place in August, 1950, and,

looking back over the year, the pleasures stand out vividly and the difficulties seem not to have been so difficult after all. For the children, the pleasure started in the preparations at home; some new clothes, the case to be packed, new pail and spade. For the staff the preparations were many and varied. Food Office permits were only to be secured after we had collected the travellers' ration books. Selection and packing of play material; some homely medical stores such as milk of magnesia, orange juice and cod-liver oil; our own milk-pan; an arm-chair for Nurse Croft—our lists were made and un-made many times. As the packing was done the boxes were stored in my office and, as the great day of travel approached, it was nearly impossible to enter my room. Our large collection of 'preparations' was conveyed to Saltburn in the Education Committee's van. We did appreciate the Director's co-operation in this; it enabled us to take so much which made 'Cliffden' into 'our nursery'.

The great day arrived. The departure in a car to the station, the railway journey and another car at Saltburn were all enjoyment to the children. To find no mother at the end of the journey was definitely a set-back, but dinner was quickly served at their own tables and, after a quick look at the lovely garden, followed by sleep in their own day beds and a sweet when they woke up, smiles soon came back to their faces.

On account of the difficulty of sweet coupons, we had asked the mothers to pack some boiled sweets or toffees for the children instead of sending them away with pocket-money. This worked very well, for the sweets were a daily link with home. They provided a daily treat to anticipate, and the children had the joy of sharing and handing round.

The residential aspect of the nursery was new to the children and to most of the staff. In a day nursery, troubles which have loomed very large all day simply vanish when mummy walks in at the door after tea. In the residential nursery the same troubles must all be resolved by bedtime or the child will not sleep. The students were well tutored in ways and means of preventing (if possible) or meeting this difficulty. The first night the children were intrigued by the idea of sleeping all in the same room and showing off their new pyjamas or nightdresses. Later they liked having their own cases in the dormitory, and each night they would choose which frock or

socks they would wear next day. Their 'very own bed' also helped, as most of these children must share a bed at home, and soon became a source of pride instead of fear.

This first night had been anticipated by the staff with as much stagefright as any large London production by young artists. The students had prepared and rehearsed their bedtime stories. It was story-telling under difficulties that first night; never had toilets been in such demand. Sleep and peace came at last, though it was many hours before the staff could get to bed.

The garden was a constant joy to the children and an educational asset to the staff. Tommy and Dennis became working men and the Warden was most patient. He allowed the children to pick beans, peas, strawberries and tomatoes and to dig potatoes and carrots just as we needed them. All helped to shell peas and beans for lunch. Beans were not popular until each child picked his own, shelled them, and put them into the pan. They found the wool inside the bean pod just like a jersey to keep the beans warm.

We were able to have fresh flowers every day, thanks to the members of the Saltburn Rotary Club, and the children chose where the vases should stand and filled them with water. At first they were very careful not to walk on the lawn, but the Warden assured us that we must use it for the children's play. The lawn was very lovely, and the grass at our own nursery is more like a field—long, rough and on a slope. I must say here that our work in our own nursery garden has not been in vain; the children used the hostel garden with joy and dignity and I was proud of them.

The seaside part of the holiday was much enjoyed by the children. They were on the sands and paddling in the water every fine day. At home the nursery is by the dockside and the children only go to the seaside a few times in the year. We saw the children inventing play on the sands that was very different from that in the sand-pit—play planned with larger scope and with more physical activity.

I have said that a hostel was not homelike, but our hostel was different. Our Warden had a wife, a baby girl, and a large dog, Blackie. I am not sure if we became part of their family or if they became part of our nursery. Mrs. Warden

became our housemaid and was quickly absorbed as a member of the staff. Through a double booking, there was also a party of youths at the hostel for the first week-end, but we soon absorbed them into the nursery too. They chopped wood and carried coal, ready for any wet evening, they carried day-beds and large boxes for us.

One of the drawbacks to a residential nursery is a danger of living too much in a small community. It is due to the great kindness and interest of the Saltburn Rotary Club that we became part of a large community at once. They visited us and invited us to visit them in their homes. The children enjoyed their gardens and their cars, which took them further afield into the country. The staff met other adults in their homes and returned refreshed to their work with the children.

At the nursery we still hear the children say, 'Such-and-such happened when I went on Nurse Croft's holiday.' All the children had the following winter free from illness.

Now you may ask 'Which children went to Saltburn?' for it was only eight out of forty. It

was a very difficult selection to make. I tried to find those children who would have no chance of leaving town on holiday with their parents. Their next holiday away from home will probably be at the age of twelve when they may go to our school's camp at Middleton-in-Teesdale or to the Education Committee's camp at Seaburn.

So far I have tried to show what the children gained from their holiday. What the Training College students gained is quite another story. Much of what they had learned academically has become a living reality. The whole care of the child, mental and physical, with our old friend security, has been seen in practice as a clear-cut necessity. We tried to give each student practical experience in every aspect of child care both by day and night. In turn, each student slept in the dormitory, officiated in the bathrooms and toilets, washed and mended, planned and shopped, and served meals. There was evening duty, Sunday duty, and seven o'clock in the morning duty. Hair-washing and toe-nail cutting are not usual in a nursery school but they are both a part of 'good mothering'. These students found, as many

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a young mother has found, that there is such a lot to do when the children are in bed.

We owe much of the success of this holiday to Nurse Croft. Her vitality and her smile conquered all difficulties. Mrs. Croft is a mother, housewife, nursery nurse and Red Cross worker. She gave something to the expedition in every one of these capacities.

'Are you taking the children away this year?' We have had this question put to us so often this year from the mothers of our pupils that I think we may say our effort was a success. I hope there will be another time for other children and that, in the years to come, our eight young hostellers will be spending their holidays sampling the joys of many more hostels up and down the country.

Black Boy Singing in a Nursery School

The others sing, but Song takes him,
Ripples his body like the wind through rice,
Helpless he swings through centuries of Time
From Past to Future of his glorious race.

Play with him, son, the shining boy !
See how the sunlight flies upon his lips,
He is not wound up, a clockwork toy
Fitting to Western keys his prancing hips :

Pray that his mother in this subdued land
Rocks him to sleep with rhythms of the South,
Clothes him with colours of the humming birds,
Guards him with laughter from our sad restraints.

M. E. Mitchell

Book Reviews

Social Experience in the Junior School Edith B. Warr
(Methuen, 7/6)

Social Experience in the Junior School, although mainly concerned with the two stages of primary education—five-seven years old and seven-twelve years old—is worth the attention of all connected with education at any and every stage.

It is an honest, searching account of living groups of children in their social community of which the author herself is a part. Moreover, it consistently relates to the educational background of the times in which it is written. The author, from her long experience as a practical teacher and educationist, is able to place her record firmly amongst the shifting sands of war disturbance, social upheavals and educational experiment. This stability of experience, purpose and outlook suggests that the book will prove particularly valuable to present-day Training College students and young teachers.

Educational theories are presented in a lively manner, and careful reading reveals also a wealth of practical help. In just over 100 pages the book deals sympathetically with the problems of the five year old beginner, the social development of the seven-eight year old, and the relative maturity of the nine-twelve year old. At the same time there is continuous emphasis on the child's growing knowledge of himself as a good member of the community.

The practical appendix, short bibliography and helpful reference notes all enhance the value of this book to the teacher-student.

E. W. Corker

Social Surveys and Social Action. Mark Abrams. 153 pages including a Bibliography.
(Heinemann, London, 8/6).

This is the second volume in the new series *Contemporary Science Books*, of which Dr. Bronowski is General Editor. Mr. Abrams' experience in so many of the quite distinct types of Survey puts him in a unique position to survey the surveyors. He succeeds in drawing distinctions between the various kinds of research which are so often lumped together as surveys. This badly needed doing and will help to restore a sane perspective in regard to these newest techniques of social investigation and answer the ill-informed ridicule to which they have been subjected. His primary purpose, however, appears to have been to pay tribute to the pioneers in this field and to warn us against the tendency to strain conclusions which were not sought, much less found, by the team which conducted the project.

The limits of validity of a survey emerge clearly in his lucid description of the research into Birmingham's working and living conditions which the Bournville Village Trust carried out in 1937 and 1938 for the report *When We Build Again* (Allen and Unwin, 1941). Its eighteen pages are not only a masterpiece of compression but illustrate in practical terms the options open to those planning a survey and their motives in choosing particular methods, framing their questionnaires, and fixing clear limits to their aims. The actual forms used are reproduced in an Appendix. His next two chapters summarize the history of his

subject from the *Straw Votes* which have been traced back to 1824 when the Harrisburg *Pennsylvanian* set out to assess public opinion on the Presidential election. Before 1900 such forecasting 'polls' were an accepted preliminary to every election. The method of random interviews in the street was superseded by postal canvasses conducted by certain journals. The weekly *Literary Digest* asked for opinions on topical questions like prohibition or the proposed Government undertakings which together made up the New Deal. Using this method the *Digest* predicted Franklin D. Roosevelt's first poll within 1 per cent. The chequered tale of rival forecasting polls of subsequent Presidential elections is frankly and fairly told.

After a reference to John Howard's attempt to measure social conditions relevant to the prison reforms he sought to advocate, Mr. Abrams gives a detailed account of the work in this country especially that of Charles Booth, B. Seeborn Rowntree, and Professor Arthur Bowley, on Poverty generally. His next chapter deals with Market Research and the seventh with Surveys of Public Opinion. Then follow chapters on the development of these techniques in various fields, during and since the Second General War. One of these chronicles the work in Great Britain, and the other, in the United States. The whole book is rounded off with a forward-looking chapter on the place of these surveys in the Welfare State. There is a brief but very useful Bibliography arranged to tie up with the topics of Mr. Abrams' chapters, but the book lacks an Index which would have been most useful.

E. L. Fereday

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OCT.
12-14

The Correlation of the Arts

Edgar Billingham

19-21

Science and Utopia

Harold Walsby

Eden, Arcadia, and the Golden Age

R. Glynn Faithfull

26-28

**Experimental Painting
and Modelling** Jeannie Cannon

NOV.

2- 4

**The Role of Religion in Human
Societies** Alfred Cannon

16-18

Can Humanity Direct Evolution ?
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Education and Leadership. Dr. Eric James. 112 pages. (Geo. G. Harrap and Co., London. 6/- net).

In this new essay the High Master of Manchester Grammar School turns from *The Content of Education* to the problems involved in directing education to the specific purpose of developing an élite. He recapitulates and orders much that he has said and written on previous occasions, adding 'second thoughts' and replying to criticisms. Even so, one feels that his thesis is still unlikely to meet with very general agreement. Yet it reads well and has the well-knit fluency of a carefully considered brief. As always, Dr. James marshals his evidence adroitly. There is no danger of the reader's feeling that this is a mere re-hash of other men's ideas, yet there are many well-chosen quotations all of which are duly acknowledged. In the first few pages he seeks to disarm his critics by examining the reasons why the very idea of leadership is rejected in our time. Fear, the belief in personal liberty, a love of 'democracy' (however interpreted), and equalitarian principles, all contribute.

The main argument runs thus: Inspiring, courageous, and devoted leadership is able to make the difference between success and failure in the

highly technical work of investigation, no less than in the field of battle. The qualities ideally demanded of a leader under modern conditions are high intelligence, integrity, courage, judgment, stability, tact and perseverance. He must be a person of wide sympathy, with a keen sense of human value. He must have that humility which is a prophylactic against the love of power, constantly vigilant for the first signs that his position is corroding his integrity. In a democratic community, if effective and defensible leadership is to be tolerated, it must be open to men and women in any class, based on persuasion, and widely diffused. The first of these characteristics calls for social changes inasmuch as certain barriers to it are so removable, for example, bad housing, inferior education and poverty. On the second J. S. Mill wrote, 'No government by a democracy or a numerous aristocracy ever did or could rise above mediocrity except in so far as the sovereign Many have let themselves be guided (which in their best times they always have done) by the counsels and influence of a more highly gifted and instructed One or Few. The initiation of all wise or noble things must come from individuals. The honour and glory of the average man is that he is capable of knowing that initiative—he can respond internally to wise and noble

things and be led to them *with his eyes open.*' At its lowest the technique of persuasion may involve all those devices of suggestion and propaganda which are so freely available to the unscrupulous in a scientific age. On the third characteristic, it is of the essence of democracy that responsibility should be diffused as widely as possible. The assumption of responsibility is one of the distinguishing functions of leadership. By the devolution of authority a democracy must endeavour without losing efficiency to give some scope to powers of leadership even to individuals in whom such powers are small.

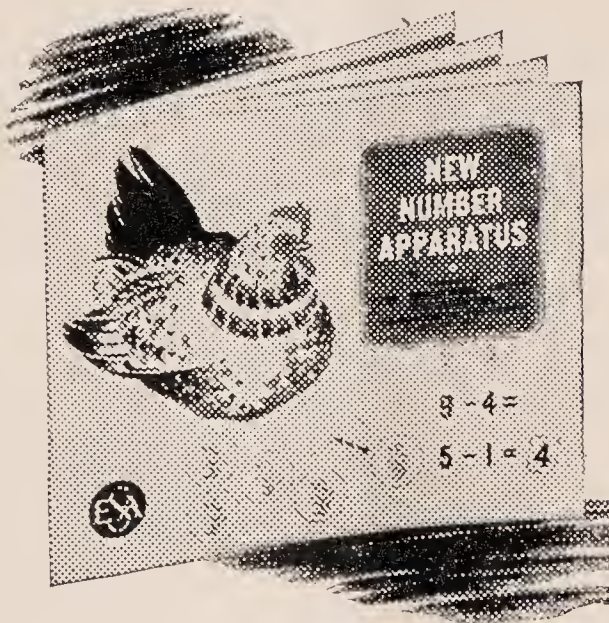
Vernon and Parry in *Personnel Selection in the British Forces* write: 'Successful officers do not all show the same traits; thus, it would seem to be the total configuration of traits in their personalities rather than the individual traits which make for success. It follows that a candidate should not be thought of as possessing a certain amount of leadership which he can display both in test and in real life situations. His personality is an organized whole, a system of tensions or needs, which interacts dynamically with the varying demands of different situations.' This raises an issue which remains in doubt throughout the book: is there some specific faculty of leadership? Dr. James makes a good case for giving special educational facilities to children of high intellect, but there is still the problem of educating those who will be leaders in spheres where intellect is not the prime requisite.

This book should be read and pondered especially by those persuaded that the basic need of our society to-day is education in Comprehensive Schools. Dr. James makes no secret of his opposition to the Comprehensive solution, and in answering his case as stated here its advocates will clarify their own thinking. Once the fear that Comprehensive Schools are insufficiently concerned with the needs of potential leaders can be allayed there will be a much wider body of support for such schools. His intransigent position on this forces him to deal with the complex and treacherous problem of Selection and this he faces squarely.

He will carry most teachers with him in his forthright assertion that eleven is too early an age to consider qualities of mind and personality other than intelligence. Since these will be conditioned overwhelmingly by the cultural and social standards of the home he points out that 'it is surely one of the highest functions of the schools to help the child to transcend his social and cultural handicaps.' The next selection is for an advanced or sixth form course and 'in general no schoolmaster would keep a boy out of

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the sixth form on any other than intellectual grounds.' Subsequent selection procedure is far less standardized and uses the known devices almost capriciously. It is fashionable to rate highly the complex techniques developed in officer selection and the author, at any rate, has no reservations as to their efficacy, but so far they have not been widely used in other spheres.

It is in selection for University training that the greatest effort should be made for from the Universities will come increasingly leaders for most professions and almost every sphere of life. The abolition of arbitrary selection by power to pay increases the magnitude of this problem. With the broadening of the educational ladder we have to select those who are not quite scholars and may show up badly in an interview or in any social situation, merely from social immaturity. The University must not close its doors to those who most need its influence nor forget its function to educate those whom it selects as well as to select those already nearly educated.

E. L. Fereday

Tricksy Tales Grace Turner (Wheaton's, Exeter)

The *Tricksy Tales* are a lively series of supplementary readers, most enjoyed by children with a reading age of approximately seven years. At such a stage they appeal to the child's sense of humour; while the controlled vocabulary includes words frequently needed and used by children of that age. The repetition of systematic phrases and dialogue helps the child to read with increased confidence, comprehension and expression through his ability to make the words flow.

The clear illustrations are accurate in proportion and colour but are best when they stretch across the full width of the page and do not interfere with the wording. The short lines of words, which utilize the space by the side of illustrations, make reading jerky, less comprehensible and monotonous.

The lettering, though not so bold as we find in many similar books, is restful to the eyes while remaining clear. The actual style of letter formation is confusing for it lacks uniformity; where the 'g' is curved the 'y' is straight; and when confronted with 'j' several children read it as an elongated 'i'!

It has been said that seven is the age for fairy tales (by those who approve of fairy tales at all!) and perhaps this accounts for the eagerness with which seven-year-old children read to the end of these stories, whose

PITMAN

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theme is similar to a fairy tale, with 'right' predominating and all ending happily. This review ends happily too, for at least one group of children have been given an amusing and enjoyable experience in reading.

Patricia A. Smith

Enjoying Books. Geoffrey Trease. (Phoenix. 7/6).

Recommendation is usually welcome; it is pleasant to be told of a good hotel, something new to eat, a bargain radio, a new use for old razor blades; but not of a book. The mere fact that you are told you would enjoy a book, often determines you not to. Mr. Trease has a problem—how to talk about, suggest and analyse books, for children who have already formed some opinions of their own, partly in defiance of bad or clumsy advice in the past. This task needed and has been given, unusual thought, work and affectionate care. It is entirely free from fuss and unction; it is sincere, amazingly complete, and thorough. It is a book to be kept well away from earnest parents and aunts who think it would do children good to read it; it should be prominent in every

★

Glaucon

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library for children to discover for themselves.

There is a tendency in parts for the matter to seem suitable mainly for the model child who wants advice because he means to take it, and some of the discussion is complex and adult, but it would have been a far more serious criticism to say that parts of it were not up to the best children's level, and in any case many children are quite able to cope with complex or adult thought. Adults interested in discussing books with children, should read this first. Its lucidity, freshness and lack of artificiality will do more than entertain and fascinate them; it will provide them with a model of the only kind of approach likely to succeed. Its scope is wide; almost every kind of book, nearly every kind of writing, is dealt with. There is even a section on how a book is made, and a list of 'books you may enjoy' which is by several miles the finest I have seen. Broadly, everything about it is pleasing, from the author's faith in it and pleasure in overcoming his difficulties, to the clear print, pleasant paper and binding which will have children reaching for it, even if it means climbing to the top shelf.

Vernon Rosetti

NOTES FROM THE ENGLISH SECTION

Since the last issue of the *E.N.E.F. Bulletin*, the English Section has had three London meetings, and many members have taken part in the International Summer Conference of the New Education Fellowship at Chichester. This conference will be described in the November number of *The New Era*.

Conference of First-Year Teachers

The first of the London meetings was a conference for young teachers, '*The First-Year Teacher Speaks*'. Under the skilled and sympathetic chairmanship of Dr. J. T. Bradley, the L.C.C. Inspector whose special responsibility is looking after the new entrants to the profession, five teachers described their experiences during their first year in the schools, stating their difficulties and problems, and giving some account of how they faced them.

The first speaker described her experiences in a Nursery School. Her first problem was to deal with the noise in the class—a class which she discovered had had five different teachers within twelve months. Another symptom of the children's insecurity was their disrespect for property. Toys were repeatedly broken but, by removing the broken toys until they could be repaired, it was found possible gradually to make the children careful of their belongings, and to make them take a pride in them. To encourage a less destructive attitude to books, a book-corner was made in the classroom, with chairs and tables which the children could use as they wished. Two other difficulties were the bareness of the walls and the lack of playground accommodation. The children had no ground of their own and were restricted to half an hour daily in the school playground along with older children. In spite of these difficulties, this teacher felt that she had achieved considerable progress during her first year, and she had recognized that the need to adapt the ideals with which she had come from her Training College did not necessarily involve their abandonment.

The next speaker was a teacher in a Secondary Modern School, the top floor of which housed the girls and the ground floor the boys. Her first difficulties had been the formal time-table and the existence of specialist teaching in the school. There was no blocking of the time-table and there were no syllabuses. The lack of a syllabus was, she felt, particularly harmful in English and Arithmetic as there was no continuity in those subjects from Form to Form. Teachers were left without proper guidance. There was no co-operation between the staff of

ten members, six of whom were new, five of these having come straight from college. Here again, it was clear that the discipline of the school had suffered from the repeated changes of staff. She felt that the situation could best be met by firmness and consistency and a determination to accept nothing less than her highest expectations. Besides these specific difficulties, this teacher was surprised at the small amount of time she spent actually in teaching. She was also worried by the lack of standards by which progress could be judged; the previous work of the children was no guide. She therefore began by expecting too much, partly because she had not realized how vast was the lack of general and local knowledge possessed by the children in that area. Parents rarely seemed to take their children with them on expeditions, and one of the problems as yet unsolved was how to impress parents with the need for doing things together with their children for, and making them aware of, the community in which they lived. She had completed her first year of teaching with a sense of disappointment at how little had been achieved in the year and yet with a realization that she had learned a very great deal which she would be able to apply in future years.

The third speaker, a man, taught in a co-educational Grammar School. The boys and girls had a variety of backgrounds and a number of them were Jews. It was a large school with crowded conditions, but it was co-educational in the best sense of the term. Once again, the main difficulties seemed to be physical—the inadequacy of the playgrounds, which were now allotments, and the bad architecture of the building. These physical disabilities were, in the opinion of this teacher, very largely responsible for an adverse effect on the work and academic standards of the children. There was, for instance, no Mathematics room and no adequate storage space. This seemed to lead to a lack of respect for property. The text-books which were supplied by the school were out of date, and there was great difficulty in getting members of the Sixth Form to read outside their specialist syllabus: indeed, this speaker's first quarrel was with the effect of the examination syllabus on the children, who seemed often out of their depth because they were asked to deal with matters far beyond their own experience. On the other hand, much was done in this school through out-of-school activities, to make personal contacts with the children and to broaden their general outlook and

experience. The speaker was left at the end of his first year with the feeling that the ultimate aim of education, and one most difficult to achieve, was teaching children some kind of moral values.

The fourth speaker described her experiences in a large school in which she worked as a specialist teacher, teaching Science to twenty Forms. As she herself was particularly interested in the problems of backward children, she was given, at her own request, a Form which had been the despair of other members of the staff. Fully aware of the effect of the specialist system on the children in the school, she determined that, in spite of her own heavy syllabus in Science, she would make her Form-room a real centre for the members of her own group and would try to give them the security and encouragement which she felt children of this kind particularly needed. There were thirty children in the Form, twelve years old, many with physical disabilities—indeed they were not really a Form, they were a conglomeration. There was not even a clique or a gang amongst them. Their Form-room—the laboratory—had nothing homely about it. The problem, therefore, was to create a home in this unpromising environment. Determined that her duties as Form-mistress must come first, this teacher devoted all her spare time and a great deal of her dinner hour towards creating the right kind of atmosphere. First she aroused enthusiasm through her own subject, then she arranged that she and her Form should lunch together in their own room, for the tidiness of which the children became responsible. She built up a Science library and got her own Form to act as the library monitors. She started a Science Club and gradually outside influences were brought in. By the end of the year these backward girls had become a secure community, and some at least of their educational difficulties had become less acute. This teacher was firmly convinced that one of the biggest problems which the young teacher had to face lay in the creation of security and friendliness within the groups with which she had to deal.

The last speaker taught in a boys' Grammar School in which he had a large share of the Sixth Form work. His first difficulty had been that of making contact with the boys—a difficulty which he had not yet solved. Out-of-school activities were a help, but many boys were not touched by these. He felt that this was a problem which could only be solved by the co-operation of all members of the

staff. This speaker also felt that the syllabus was too restrictive, and had found one of his most serious problems that of finding time to continue his own study. In many ways his first year had been a year of frustration, but his ideals remained fresh although he realized the intense difficulty of applying them.

At the end of these five talks there was a short general discussion in which the shape of the afternoon session in small discussion groups gradually emerged. During the afternoon, members of the conference met under four group leaders, older and more experienced teachers, who were prepared to offer guidance in the discussion of problems. The conference closed with reports from each of these groups. Space does not permit of a summary of these, but the value of the conference to those who took part in it was affirmed by their desire that a conference of this kind should be repeated and opportunity given to teachers a little later in the year to assess their first-year experiences. It was agreed that the next conference of this kind should be organized for the Autumn when the young teachers were embarking on their second year in the schools.

Festival of Britain Meetings

As its contribution to part of the Festival of Britain celebrations arranged by the College of Preceptors, the E.N.E.F. arranged two meetings at the College. The first was on the 3rd July when the subject for debate was Co-education. It proved extremely difficult to find a man to speak against co-education and impossible to find a woman. The debate therefore took the form rather of a discussion. It was opened by a witty and stimulating address from Mr. H. B. Jacks, Headmaster of Bedales, to which Mr. F. W. Lockwood, Headmaster of the William Ellis School, replied. Miss F. M. Miller, Headmistress of Burghley Secondary School, followed with a re-statement of

the advantages and possibilities of co-education which left the audience stimulated to take part in the very lively discussion which followed.

The second meeting, on the 17th July, was a Brains Trust on *Psychology in the Classroom*, with Mr. W. Griffith, Secretary to the Education Committee of the N.U.T., as Question Master. The Trust consisted of: Mr. H. A. T. Child, Educational Psychologist to the L.C.C.; Miss N. Clarke, Headmistress of Imperial Avenue Infants' School, Leicester; Mr. James Hemming, Chairman of the E.N.E.F. Education Committee; Miss A. E. Martin, Chairman of the E.N.E.F. and Headmistress of West Kensington Secondary School; and Mr. Porter, Assistant Master at St. George-in-the-East Secondary School, London. A number of very pertinent questions had been sent in before the meeting began and supplementary questions were accepted from the floor.

The meetings proved both informa-

tive and entertaining and drew two of the largest audiences present at any of the College of Preceptors meetings organized in connection with the Festival of Britain.

Educational Terms

During the current year the Education Committee has been trying to clarify certain educational terms. So far it has considered Authoritarianism, the effects of the authoritarian school on teachers and pupils, and as a corollary to this the positive aspects of the democratic school community. Two sessions were given to a consideration of Personality, and after a long discussion ranging over such topics as the difference between personality and character, the influence of environment and heredity, and other aspects of the theme, it was agreed that 'personality' and 'education for personality' were not sufficiently precise educational terms, and should be dropped from the educational vocabulary. The Committee's present theme is educational standards. It is hoped to publish an extended account of these meetings as it is felt they may have significance for the whole Fellowship.

Christmas Conference

The Open Meeting of the E.N.E.F. at the Conference of Educational Associations in London will be on the morning of 31st December, 1951, when Mr. Ben Morris, Director of the National Foundation for Educational Research, will speak on 'Education and Individuality'. The Chair will be taken by Sir Fred Clarke, retiring President of the E.N.E.F.

Kingsway Branch Discussion Group

A report from one of the Kingsway Branch Discussion Groups has been received and some account of its activities will appear in a later English Section report.

J. B. A.

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THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

LOOKING BACK ON A CONFERENCE

Laurin Zilliacus, Chairman of the New Education Fellowship

ONCE again people from fifteen or sixteen different nations came together and, within a few hours, fuse into a little community that did not like the idea of breaking up. During the conference described in this issue of *The New Era* community feeling grew more quickly and more strongly than at any other conference in my experience. That extra ease, extra swiftness and extra strength were, of course, due partly to the form which the conference was planned to take, but more especially, to the 'seven wonders of the conference'—the group leaders. They made this unique in the N.E.F.'s history of conferences. They are extremely distinguished, skilled and competent persons in their fields, and they are human as well. At this conference we did not take armfuls of facts and mouthfuls of words and hurl them at each other in lectures and arguments, but we created things together. To me, this rising of a feeling that transcends individuals, links them together, seems to be outside them, and yet is always inside them, is something of a miracle. It is a wonder of human nature—this thing that is more than any one of us and more than the sum of us all. 'What a piece of work is man.'

In trying to think about this conference and what especially marked it, I found myself slipping into the use of *clichés*—the first being the *cliché* 'wonderful'. We had much experience of beauty—beauty of sound, form, movement, colour, and of relationships. We had that to an unusual degree, partly directly through professional creators and interpreters of beauty but also, thanks to them, through the work of ordinary, humdrum, stiff, self-conscious, tied-up pedagogues—and that is a thing that is full of wonder. Ordinary people like us, some quite well on in years and in habits of over-verbalization and uncreativity, actually produced little glimpses of beauty in diverse fields, giving us a new understanding, a new ease, a new confidence, and certainly a new reason for going on with hope in our daily lives and in our daily tasks.

We also had a 'lovely time', to use another *cliché* into which this conference has poured back meaning. Loveliness, which is beauty's gentler and more human cousin, we had all around us whenever we moved about. 'Lovely' is surely the right word to use about the Southern English countryside with its Downs and little villages nestling at their feet, where for centuries man and nature have come to terms with each other. We had the 'lovely persons' that one member of the conference talked about. We had loveliness in much of the creative work. Indeed, so much did loveliness permeate the conference that even when skits were produced, the result was not grotesque but a combination of humour and loveliness. We had loveliness in every movement made by the leader of the Movement group herself and in what to me was a startling experience on the lawn when her group demonstrated their work for us. I had seen the same people on the first day. I had not been with the Movement group or seen them at work again until this demonstration, and (I will confess) expected to realize, from their demonstration, that their experience had been good for them, and that the whole was quite a good show—making allowances. In fact it turned out to be something that one would be glad to go a long distance to see simply as a delight for the eye, and making no allowances whatever. What that did for the people taking part must be important.

We also had what you might call a realistic time. We at last practised what we have been preaching about the activity school, and practised it on ourselves. Even when I was doubtful whether these creative groups were going to work, I thought it was a good thing that we should at last begin to try to do something to ourselves and not only to the innocent victims of our good intentions. And this happened.

Our work was also realistic in another sense. It helped us to go below surface level in ourselves, to discover both the good things and the little black devils, and to face and understand them ;

to admit more readily those things in ourselves that we have covered over for many years of our respectable upbringing and more or less blameless lives. I was particularly interested and fascinated by the reports that we heard from the interpretative discussion groups. The experience must, of course, have been determinative for the people taking part, but, because of the way in which their reports were presented to the rest of us and their direct linkage with the whole experience of the conference, I am sure that it also did something to every conference member. We have been helped to know ourselves.

A saying that is attributed generally to the Chinese is 'You cannot step twice into the same river'; I think one could perhaps with equal truth, paraphrase the saying and say, 'You cannot put the same feet twice into the river.' The feet change; every bit of us changes; and during

these nine days I believe many of us changed rather more rapidly and perhaps more fundamentally than is usual during nine days. We changed each other, both in our emotional and in our intellectual impacts, in our sharing of creative work, in our building together of group feeling, in making our closely-knit little world. I am sure that all this caused something to happen inside each of us that made us a little different when we stepped into our ordinary lives again.

[This is part of the Chairman's concluding address at the New Education Fellowship Conference, Chichester, England, 31st July to 9th August. There were 130 members from sixteen different countries. The conference was planned to give them an opportunity of creative experience in small groups under the inspiration of men and women expert in their own field, and selected for their skill in transmitting their enthusiasm to others.

The group activities were painting (two groups), original writing, pottery, mathematics, movement and interpretative group discussion. Arrangements for a music group broke down at the last minute. Reports from the group leaders make up the rest of this number of *The New Era*. Reviews have had to be held over until December, for lack of space.—ED.]

ONE PAINTING GROUP

Jeannie Cannon, Portrait Painter and Teacher at an E.S.N. School

IT was suggested to members attending the Chichester conference that, when they chose the group in which they would work, it would be wise to choose the activity of 'least familiarity' to make possible the discovery of other sides of themselves. Thus I found in my painting group of sixteen only four with any experience. They were adults of all ages and of four nationalities, mainly teachers but including social workers.

We began with rhythmic movement to loosen up our bodies. Then, taking chunks of charcoal and continuing the movement with our arms, we covered large sheets of newspaper with lines that danced all over it. When our sheets were covered, and we had *felt* the making of free and beautiful lines and curves, we were ready for the next stage. Taking a fresh sheet of paper, and consciously moving our bodies in a tranquil and harmonious way, we transferred this mood to our paper, with more meaningful lines to represent this feeling. Then a different mood was suggested, and we attacked a fresh sheet of paper with hate, and so almost a new language in form was discovered.

From this we moved to our first picture. Everyone was asked to draw with charcoal, *immediately*, whatever shape was felt when certain emotions were mentioned. The group was advised to do this as quickly as possible, so as not to give the intellect the dominant rôle. After making the

first shapes, they were invited to select colours and develop the form to express the emotion in as whole a way as possible. They were then given the choice of 'Hope and Despair' or 'Fun and Misery'. This set them going with fervour, and a great deal of real hope and despair and fun and misery was released! By the end of the first session, everyone had a more or less finished picture, and a sense of tremendous excitement had been created as it was revealed that there were indeed new avenues to be explored. The afternoon found the group fascinatedly exploring further on their own.

The next morning they were asked to take a paint brush full of black paint and, scarcely looking at their paper, allow the hand to wander aimlessly all over it; then to consider the pattern they had made, turning it round and round until it suggested its own picture. In the first flush of enthusiasm this was tackled in a spirit of glee, but this spirit was by no means able to survive. Soon there were groans (? birth pangs) for they had been asked not to alter (hence the black paint) one line to fit in, but to wait until the lines spoke to them. Perhaps it was a bit of a shock to find that not all that was suggesting itself was beautiful; often what appeared was resisted, so that progress with the painting was held up for a long time. Yet, when the advice was followed,

the beautiful and ugly, or the light and dark, had become so intertwined as to make a whole and delightful harmony, which touched them far more deeply than their first effort and had perhaps, in the course of the struggle, brought to them a sense of greater wholeness.

One who complained with distinct annoyance throughout the whole period created a self-portrait in great pain and as if pinned down in an intricate pattern. There was also an unforgettable 'Inferno', dominated by a scarlet-robed figure, suggesting both Judge and Shepherd, as Saviour; an exquisitely balanced design of light and dark. 'Adam and Eve and the Serpent' worked their way through, and there were some egg formations.

After these group efforts, fascinating in their differences, a whole flow of new suggestions came from the leader to meet the needs of the different personalities. One of these was inspired by a trip into the country and a suggestion was made that they should have pencil and paper handy to jot down in line or word anything calling to be translated into a picture. Another suggestion was to listen to a very paintable sonata by Scarlatti which members had heard at one of the piano recitals given every morning before the sessions began, and see what happened when they got back to the studio. We worked on whichever of these subjects took our fancy. Those who worked on the music produced extraordinarily different designs, from abstract colour harmonies to horses galloping up mountainous peaks.

Later they were asked to combine with the Movement group, either in action or watching, with a view to putting their 'proceedings' on paper, mainly from feeling. This we did; the visual side got a bit in our way but, so long as we concentrated only on the feel of the movement, we got some very lively effects. Once we began to *think* whether we had a leg or an arm in their right place, the flow of intertwined movement was lost. This suggested to me that it would be wiser to tackle the visual in an easier way. Accordingly we went to that rare fishing village, Bosham, and contemplated boats of every description that, unlike the Movement group, just lay there, exposing their exquisite rhythmic lines above the gently rippling water. All this brought us endless material to be worked into picture form, which lasted some members for two or three days.

The last two sessions were devoted to portrait

painting, starting as simply as possible. An egg shape was drawn, then the basic shapes and proportions of features demonstrated. From this basis everyone produced an imaginary portrait. Villains and beauties of all sorts appeared, creating a gallery of horrors—and much merriment when it was recalled by the leader that most artists put more or less of themselves into their portraits. We then moved to the more ambitious tackling of a real portrait, members of the conference being lured to sit for us. Though rather crude, many of them had some likeness to the sitter and one or two were outstandingly good. We had, of course, only touched the fringe of the possibilities thus opened up. Some felt they were only just beginning to look at or to 'see' people.

Throughout the whole nine days we had the feel of being caught up in a whirl of fascinating adventure. Every moment found people making their way to the studio to try something new. By the time it came to the exhibition, they almost felt they had 'painted themselves out', so to speak; yet after listening to the reports of the other groups (especially the Movement and the Creative Writing groups), one member said, 'Oh! I want to go and paint again.'

There was no outstanding 'nationality' difference in the styles of painting—only one amusing incident at the exhibition when a quite outstanding picture called forth the remark, 'That's not done by an English person' and I had the joy of pointing out that it was done by a very jolly North-country Englishwoman who is both a teacher and a mother.

Looking back, one cannot help but be struck by the inner riches the conference uncovered, and sad at the thought that, so often, they have to lie buried.

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ANOTHER PAINTING GROUP

Piet Klaasse, Teacher of Art, Montessori Lyceum, Amsterdam

AFTER all the conferences at which educationists have condemned themselves to listening and nothing but listening, it was a great idea to organize the Chichester conference on the basis of creative activity—all members taking part. Is it not remarkable that the Dutch N.E.F. conference, though planned independently, was based on the same principle? This inspiring experience began after conference members and group leaders had made the acquaintanceship of one another. Each group leader spoke to the whole conference on the first evening, saying something of his own art and how he proposed to conduct his group. We on the platform felt like curiosities in the Zoo, and were very happy that a real and easier acquaintanceship followed once the groups were formed.

At the outset all members of our Painting group freed themselves by making all sorts of movements, and discovering that movement is the basis of all the arts, exploring and exploiting the possibilities of line and composition with charcoal on an old newspaper!

The second creative experience was the transformation of our Geography room which, though well equipped for its own function was rather dull and dark for a painting room, into our studio. We moved every piece of furniture and filled the room with masses of carefully arranged flowers, picked in the extremely lovely garden.

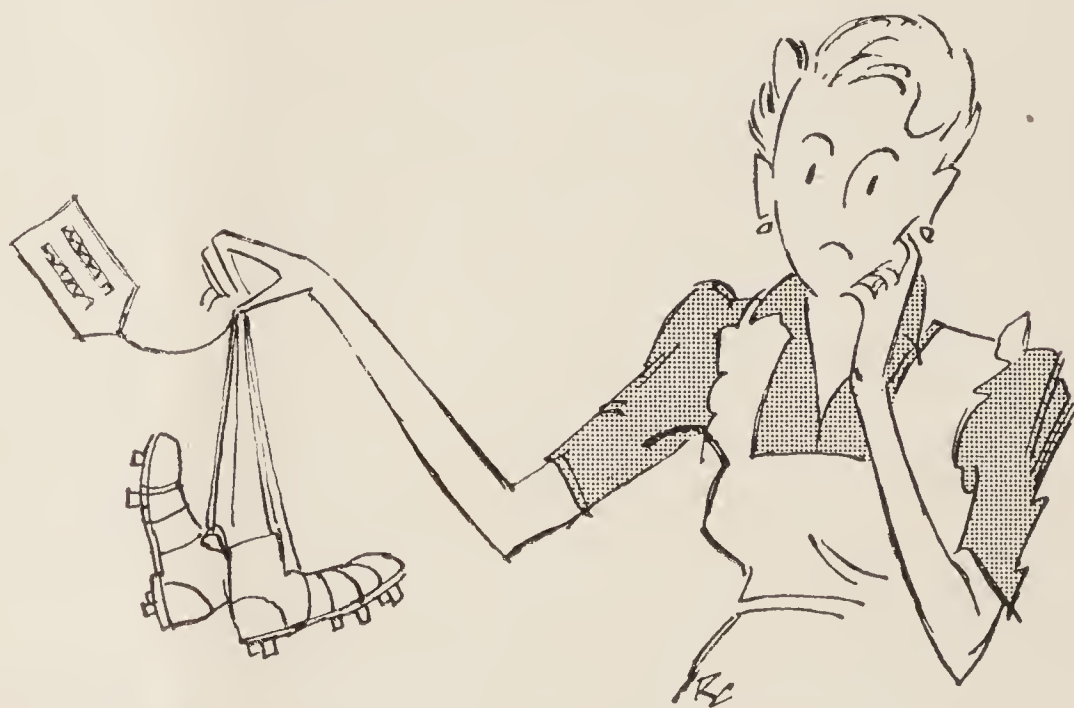
Now the proper work could start. See how everybody works! A teacher of mathematics is already discovering the 'mathematical laws' of colour and form; a middle-aged Belgian schoolmaster is tearing up a newspaper and sticking the bits very thoughtfully together; a young German chap is making a childish drawing, as pure as that of an unspoilt child; an English lady is painting in an abstract pattern of lines made during the movement session; whilst an elderly lady

is painting a religious scene in very strong colours. A shy Dane is struggling with a rather muddy painting of the Bishop Otter College, but he will soon draw a remarkable frieze with a very broad pen. To give still more variety to the scene some American guests turn up, two of them Negroes.

Day by day the work grows in variety and, what really counts, in quality: Landscapes from memory or with the help of a sketch; excursive original and abstract patterns; portrait drawings and illustrations of a story, and flower paintings, all differing in medium, size and technique.

How very short were these nine days of creative experience, and how very encouraging!

Adults, very different in character and attitude, in nationality and upbringing, of ages varying from twenty to sixty years, worked together in a happy and creative atmosphere. They proved that adults who have never thought of drawing or painting before are able to do creative work of an astonishingly high standard.



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THE MATHEMATICS GROUP

C. T. Daltry, Lecturer in Mathematics, London University Institute of Education

FOLLOWING Sir Percy Nunn, who first inspired me twenty-five years ago, I have always believed that mathematics is 'one of the main lines which the creative spirit of mankind has followed in its development'. To develop mathematics as a creative activity with a group of interested adults, as I was asked to do at Chichester, offered a challenge and an opportunity not to be missed. How could one begin? Obviously by creating such mathematics as needed little preliminary technical knowledge—the geometry of shapes or designs, or perhaps the properties of numbers. How should one proceed? Several lines of advance were possible—into solid forms, map projections, loci, algebra—but which to choose would depend on the interests of members of the group. Further detailed preparation could not be done beforehand. I therefore took a great deal of teaching material—cases of books, diagrams, models, apparatus—to Chichester by car, and decided to prepare the rest of the course as we went along.

On the first evening of the conference each group leader explained to the whole company his or her plan of action. I could only show some of my material and offer to dispel ignorance of the real significance of mathematics. Next morning a group of seven students assembled in Hut 8.

We begin

We had first to make ourselves acquainted: I proposed that we should say something about ourselves and why we had joined the group. I explained how I came to be leader and what were my views on mathematics in general. I compared mathematics with music, and mathematicians with musicians; to say that X is a musician may mean several things; X may compose, or teach, or merely appreciate. One could appreciate music (or mathematics) even if one could not compose it. Most teaching of mathematics concentrated on the drudgery of composition and ignored interpretation and appreciation. After this, members of the group spoke freely about their own experiences of mathematics and gave three reasons for joining the group:

- (1) They were in greater ignorance of mathematics than of any other activity;
- (2) Their lessons in mathematics when they

were at school had not convinced them of the value of mathematics;

- (3) Several of them were teaching mathematics and wished to increase their confidence in the value of their teaching.

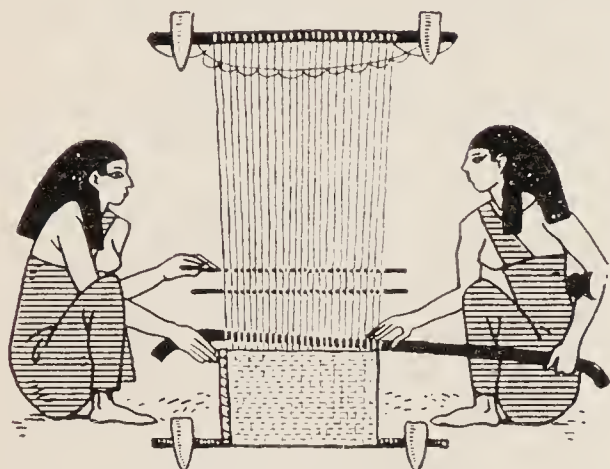
It was clear that they had been misguided by unimaginative teaching. I therefore contrasted two ways of teaching mathematics—the logical and the psychological, explaining that it is very hard for teachers to choose the second (and better) rather than the first, because of the inherent nature of mathematics. All mathematics comes about through solving problems, and the methods for solving problems ultimately reduce to abstract principles. Teachers are always tempted to begin with the principles and not with the problems, but beginning with the problems supplies a motive for studying mathematics and thus for seeking principles. Consider the approach to trigonometry. A generation ago this was through a string of technical definitions; only after memorizing these and their relations did the pupil attempt to use them to solve a problem. A more effective approach is to find the height of a building by comparing its shadow with that of a pole of known height; or to discuss the mathematical principles inherent in the sign 'Steep Hill; Gradient 1 in 5'. From discussing this sign it is easy to arrive at the tangents and sines of trigonometry, and here I recalled a piece of real mathematics, visible from our windows.

The Spiral Staircase

On the way to Hut 8 I had noticed a beautiful spiral staircase which descended from a dormitory. The handrail of this stairway was a complete sine curve. I drew the attention of the group to this, and showed some of the mathematics used in constructing the staircase. It was easy to pass to simpler geometrical patterns and I found myself showing properties of circles, hexagons, cones and ellipses. We were fairly launched and sent out for further blackboards and coloured chalk. Naturally I drew many diagrams. Members of the group drew their own too, and in some small way began to create their own mathematics. I kept a synopsis of the more interesting mathematical results, and I had the books around me for reference and further reading.

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Numbers, algebra, logarithms

We had two sessions every morning and some evening sessions. The group sat at their desks in a half-circle. I found myself drawing diagrams on a long roll of greaseproof paper from Woolworth's; this saved blackboard scrubbing and preserved a record of our work. I developed any notions that came along and freely consulted the mathematical library lying around. For instance, a pattern of sine curves appears as part of a map projection used in a Cable and Wireless advertisement. This suggested to one member of our group who had been a sailor a discussion of Mercator's projection. After two sessions on geometry, someone asked if we could now pass to arithmetic or algebra. I did this by discussing properties of numbers, and puzzles and general relations, and we soon reached such abiding truths as the theorems of Gauss (on prime numbers), Goldbach, Pythagoras and Fermat. One member asked if one could *teach* algebra under school conditions in a creative fashion, so I took the development of simple factors and related topics and showed what could be done. Later I discussed the historical evolution of logarithms. And one evening session was devoted to examinations and how to cope with them. Without giving all the topics we discussed, it is not possible to say how these discussions differed from ordinary talks about mathematics, but I place great emphasis on the selection of material. The use of appropriate illustrations is fundamental in teaching music or poetry, and is equally essential in teaching the appreciation of mathematics. I cannot stress this point too strongly.

Appreciation or Creation ?

Our work could hardly be regarded as creative in the same sense as was that of the other groups, but it did increase enormously the *appreciation* of mathematics by the group and, had we continued for a longer period, we could have used this new insight into mathematics as a basis for creative work. I was more concerned to advance on a wide front of appreciation than to concentrate on creative work which would have required separate treatment with individuals according to their previous mathematical knowledge and separate interests. For individual creative work in mathematics some consolidation of skill would have been required, but we could quite easily have accomplished this because the interest of

members was extremely keen. Many did a good deal of private reading and drawing when the hut was at their disposal during the afternoons and evenings.

However, an unexpected opportunity for creative work came towards the end.

The exhibition

After three or four days the creative achievements of the painters and potters were clearly manifest. Also the group leaders met to consider how, near the end of the conference, each group could best show the others what it had accomplished. Most groups would simply show their works; little explanation would be required. It occurred to me that a descriptive account of what the mathematics group had done would be improved if we too had an exhibition of our work. From a model of the spiral staircase around which the opening session had developed, the visitor passed to diagrams showing geometrical forms and shapes, blackboards lavishly illuminated in coloured chalks displaying significant properties of ellipses and systems of circles, models of surfaces made from wires, and of curves shaped from straight lines. Whilst this material was being assembled and devised, two members of the group proposed to show on a blackboard the true significance of the story about Newton and the apple. Once they had glimpsed the possibilities of this theme there was no holding them. The result was a surrealist fantasy, comprising Newton, the apple, gravity, the moon, the principle of action at a distance, and what else. Visitors were greatly impressed—and those who were baffled by the fantasy found the brilliant verbal interpretations of one of its creators completely convincing.

An interesting piece of co-operative work with the pottery group came about when one member tried to make sections of clay cones in order to show some of the 'conic sections' (parabolas, ellipses, hyperbolas) which we had been studying. One of the group leaders of the potters was inspired to create several fine models, and we dried these and decorated them to show the sections. There are great possibilities for teaching the mathematics of solid shapes through models made in the pottery room.

Another prominent display was formed from the roll of paper on which the diagrams and calculations had been made by myself when illustrating a topic. We interspersed this with

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items from the personal notes of members of the group. It was interesting to see how the creative spirit moved us increasingly as we hastened towards completion—working against time. For instance, some models of an intricate solid could not be completed; but they appeared in their bits and pieces under a familiar label 'In course of assembly'!

One side of the hut was given up to a display of the books used in providing material. Those with bright and enticing covers we left lying as they were; the duller items we opened at interesting pages to show our visitors the treasures within.

The time element had to be considered and we decided to open from lunch until six o'clock, and then to take down the exhibition before the evening assembly for final reports and speeches. This meant that our visitors (and they were very many, nearly all who attended the conference) had the exhibition very clearly in mind when we made our statement of what we had tried to do to members of the other groups.

Summing up : We report back

Given the proper conditions, the creative gift may well come to any of us. On Tuesday evening each group had presented a skit on its own activities for the benefit of the entire conference. The mathematics group had staged (and staged brilliantly) a travesty of a typical session in which the leader of the group was depicted (faithfully yet affectionately) in creative activity with his favoured few. This performance was much enjoyed, not least when the 'leader' rushed in, wreathed like Ophelia in long tendrils of convolvulus, crying, 'Here are perfect cones . . . or, er—er, they were before they withered.' The group's report back to the conference was cast in similar form. Earlier in the day I had asked each of our members, for our common benefit, to write brief answers to two questions: (1) Why had I joined the mathematics group? (2) What had I gained from it? Looking through these answers it occurred to me that, as they were very much to the point, it would be more effective if members of the group spoke them to the conference in lieu of any laboured summary by myself. So it was arranged that they should read back their Homework answers in a Sixth Form Current Affairs session with myself as Master: and I believe the total effect was all we could

have wished. The answers to the first question have already been outlined; it remains only to summarize the others.

What had we gained from the group?

Three themes recur in the answers:

- (1) 'A deal of knowledge but a greater sense of how much I have still to explore.' ('I have been staggered by the vastness of this subject.')
- (2) 'The experience of sharing the pursuit of a fascinating study in a diversified and uninhibited atmosphere, working with our hands and exchanging ideas under inspiring leadership.' ('The sharing of the group experience, which has humanized mathematics for me.')
- (3) 'I feel that I've seen the light and can go back to the rising generation and lead it thither too.' ('Although I can see even more clearly now how easily the narrow study of mathematics can steam-roller a broad approach to life.')

And what had the leader gained? First, the incredible joy of working with a small intimate group of willing learners. (To halve the size of the ordinary secondary Grammar school class would probably increase its educative value four-fold; and if only pupils and teachers were *both* willing learners!) Second, the delight in moving freely amidst his own personal collection of mathematical treasures, finding them acceptable and enriching to others, and receiving deep inspiration from their enlightenment. As I talked with the group I found again and again that new connections or illustrations would flash upon my mind. I am sure there is profound value in this uninhibited ranging over a field of knowledge—a kind of creative group research. Finally, the deepest satisfaction one can ever know—accepting a challenge, realizing an opportunity, discovering that within oneself and the group are the means to fulfil all these demands, and that gradually we achieve together some refashioning and enlargement of our cultural life through creative activity. This nine-day conference with its 'seven wonders' and its innumerable friendships has been for me one of the supreme experiences of my life. I should be even more happy if I were to be associated in a similar enterprise with my friends in the future.

The Pottery Group

Seonaid Robertson, Bretten Hall College, Wakefield

THE intention behind the pottery working party at Chichester was to give members an opportunity for a creative experience in a medium which was quite new to them. Almost no member of the group had handled clay before, and only one or two had had any opportunity of trying their hands at art or craft work. The different backgrounds and the diverse nationalities—two Egyptians, two Australians, one Japanese, one Belgian, and an assortment of English, Scots and Welsh—served to emphasize that the common experience was the clay in which we all worked. The discovery that one could at the first attempt shape a hollow vessel which would contain liquids, which then stood as a new and solid entity in the world, a thing to speak to others or to take home and ponder on—this was an exciting experience for all.



THE lovely weather enticed us to work out of doors, though sometimes we were much more widely scattered than this. Something of the variety of work is here represented. Mrs. Annand is modelling within the European naturalistic tradition, for which she as a beginner showed an astonishing aptitude. (Much of the modelling was closer to archaic forms, and working in a new and responsive medium, many students developed a quite personal way of shaping from the first.) Behind her, M. Bal is making a thumb pot which can be seen finished in other pictures, and behind them Mr. Muro is gazing into his hand-built pot which he has smoothed with a pebble. On the other side are Mr. Hammad, Miss Lamond and Mr. Ammar at various stages of shaping coiled pots, and Louis Jones who was usually indefatigable, apparently having a break.



SOME idea of the scope of the work can be gathered from this group which shows a small round thumb pot, two pressed dishes in the English tradition decorated with painted slip, a hand-coiled pot of quite poetic feeling (an amazing achievement for a first attempt), a small wheel-thrown jug—this is the hardest of techniques to master in a short time—and a modelled head of a delicate sensitivity. The tall pot is about 15 inches high, which gives some idea of the scale.

THE first contact of the potters with their new material was when they were given a lump in their hands to play with, as they sat in the sun or walked about the grounds. Then all settled down together, blindfold, and having examined their own faces by passing their finger-tips over them to find the bony structure and features common to all, they modelled a human face—not a self-portrait, but the form which their hands, without the distraction of sight, felt to be true. Some of these intensely interesting heads are shown in another photograph. The value of this approach to modelling lay in two things, that the students were less self-conscious knowing that everyone was blindfold, and that they were constrained to feel the form as a three dimensional shape. It also freed attention to interpret muscular impulses, or to concentrate on the formal relationships, without the distractions of the visual image. Modelling and pottery are both crafts which finally rely on the sensitively developed finger-tips.





THOUGH many different types of pottery and modelling were made during the eight days, they were made with an excitement which had no element of hurry. The two phrases which turned up during casual conversations were 'satisfaction' and 'a sense of timelessness'. And this is strangely true about making a vessel in clay, perhaps because it takes us back and forwards in man's history, an occupation so fundamental that everything else fades away before the complete absorption in the clay and the shape.



THE ORIGINAL WRITING GROUP

M. L. Hourd, Institute of Education, University of Leeds; author of 'The Education of the Poetic Spirit' and 'Some Emotional Aspects of Learning' (ready shortly)

THE twenty poems, which the Original Writing Group selected from the total work to read out to the whole conference, were submitted to several judges who knew nothing about the circumstances of their composition, and they were asked to choose six for publication in this article. One of the judges wrote as follows: 'Firstly I am consumed with curiosity as to how they came to be written—what went before in the way of preparation, whether they read or had read to them immediately beforehand any poetry, whether there was any direction at all as to what they should write about, and so on.' In view of this remark, I decided to preface this account with a diary of what happened in the group from day to day. I then realized that I was not able to do this. I came to the group each day with a rough plan of what we should read and discuss. But this changed as we went on, and frequently the next day's programme grew largely from the suggestions of the group the day before. I therefore wrote to a member of the group, who sent me her recollections of the day-to-day procedure, which is published here as she submitted it:

WEDNESDAY (AUGUST 1ST) 10 a.m. Meeting in History Room with mutual introductions, lasting till 11 a.m. At 11.30 we foregathered outside, jotted down titles of subjects we would like to write about, and the list was read out. You suggested that in the evening we should take pen, pencil or paint-brush and doodle; one or two lines were all that was required and you had already called us poets. Some were encouraged to depart there and then, three others began to write where they were, and there was general chat before and after you read the boat episode from *The Prelude*. One way of starting, you said, was to retell an incident from childhood days. Other poems read were *Pied Beauty* and *Binsey Poplars*.

THURSDAY (AUGUST 2ND). Poems that had been put in the file were read out, extreme criticism discouraged but mild appreciation fostered. Five people acknowledged their work. (Incidentally one or two more confessed during the coffee break but did not own up in public). You pointed out the strong apologetic note in the poems similar to expression of 'writing for fun during adolescence' which had been repeated the day before. I think we stopped early that day in order to write but quite a few discussed the problem of psychology *v.* religion. 'Thinking about Oneself!' from *Phoenix* by D. H. Lawrence was read at some point during the morning.

In the evening we met to read poetry—Donne, Lucy poems, Auden, and a political speech from apocryphal Shakespeare; scattered remarks on one's being haunted by quotations and what ghosts they stand for inside oneself; poets are politicians; must poetry always be

melancholy? parody can only destroy what is second-rate, never the greatest poetry; criticism is dictated by personal prejudice more than we realize; is the greatest work always marked by simplicity? You encouraged us to re-read Shelley's *Defence of Poetry* and said that often one wrote a poem on one occasion and understood it two years later.

SATURDAY (AUGUST 4TH). Plea from Music group for lyrics, so you read several lyrics whose titles I cannot remember. You encouraged us at that point to 'plunge into a sea of words and come up dripping.' One member objected, but the reply was that technique came later. Discussion of psychological trend in literary criticism followed and, referring to article in *The New Era*,¹ you explained your own ideas somewhat. After coffee, you read the poems you had from two classes of London children. There was *The Naughty Witch*, *Boredom*, etc. Reference to *Birth of a Poem* by Nichols.²

FRIDAY (AUGUST 3RD). Reading of *On Going a Journey*, Hazlitt, and the Funeral extract from *Ulysses*, James Joyce. Discussion of whether a well-balanced community will do away with the artist. We broke up at 11 a.m. to write.

SUNDAY (AUGUST 5TH). Extraordinary meeting to clear the air of various 'isms'.

MONDAY (AUGUST 6TH). All the new work read out and this lasted the whole morning.

TUESDAY (AUGUST 7TH). Reading of last few poems that had been 'misaid'. Discussion about the form of the report. We stopped at 11 a.m. to write up our assessment of the group.

WEDNESDAY (AUGUST 8TH). Business-like sorting out of material for the evening's anthology.

One of the assessments sent in on the last day describes the rhythm of the group in different terms. This was written by a German member:

Three Men and a Dozen Women in a Boat

First it seemed as if the boat would not get afloat. Quite a few were not willing to take an oar and do co-operative work. They had meant to capture a rocking-chair, sit on deck, look up to the sky and listen to 'real' poets' tales. They were mistaken. The poetic spirit knocked resoundingly at every hard obstacle.

Then there were some promontories to be rounded. They were threatening the boat like gigantic rocks and overshadowed the atmosphere with their dark obscurity. Rationalism and super-individualism, psycho-analysis and self-consciousness raised their frightful heads against the ship. Each time such a danger emerged out of the water the weaker souls among the group trembled and quivered for fear the whole group and they with it might be shipwrecked.

But: The Poetic Spirit came like a Pentecostal storm and drove the boat straight into a quiet harbour where all the passengers were allowed to relax and sing their songs up to the sky.

There was, I think, some difference of opinion about the relationship of the storm and the

¹ June, 1951, Vol. 32, No. 6.

² This is printed as an appendix in *An Anatomy of Inspiration* by Rosamund Harding.

harbour to the creative activity of writing; or on how far poetry is 'emotion recollected in tranquillity' and how far the immediate expression of conflict, or the resolution of conflict through expression. People varied here in their theory and practice, and on the whole it was, as one member described it, the existence of both affinity and antagonism within the group, which were allowed equal expression, that kept the ship afloat. The strongest binding factor was the one that brought us together—a love of poetry. We also shared a timidity. Few were experienced in writing. One person wrote: 'Nothing before in my former experience had given me the idea that I might write.'

It became my first task, therefore, to build up security and confidence within the group, to provide an atmosphere in which it was possible to make mistakes, in which bad things could be produced as well as good, with a feeling that the bad was essentially part of the good in a developmental sense. Confidence was also encouraged by allowing the authors to remain anonymous as long as they liked; by allowing members freedom to come and go, to give in material or to withhold it, to write or not to write. Frequently authorship was claimed when a poem was being read badly or with wrong emphasis, or when a word was objected to on the grounds of not being 'poetic'. This development of unselfconsciousness was described as follows by one of the members:

'It has been of great importance to me that there should have been this unselfconsciousness in the group. While at school and even at college I was always terrified lest things private to me, or connected with me in any personal way, should come into public light. I have been struggling with this problem for three years now, and, although I had felt I had improved it to some considerable extent, it was still with an overwhelmingly delightful sense of liberation that one could write quite naturally and freely, knowing that people's acquaintance with one's thoughts did not matter nearly as much as one had imagined. A great factor in this release was that we called ourselves 'poets' whether we wrote or not, and that one's sense of ridicule at one's own sitting down to write poetry was thereby overcome. Now, if people draw conclusions about my unconscious from what I have written, painted or "potted"—being more conscious of these elements in myself, I can answer with a tolerable amount of composure, "So what?" and I intend to go on writing.'

One of the interesting factors in the group was the presence of bi-lingualism from two sources. There were three Germans and one Egyptian who wrote sometimes in their own language (the German was beautifully translated by a member,

and this was his chief contribution in poetry to the group) and sometimes in English. There were also two teachers of Art and Craft. These found the discussions as difficult to follow as did the German members—but gradually they discovered a new medium. One of them was so tortured by the desire to paint a Negro who had visited us one morning that she had to write there and then in the class. As she put it: 'I *wrote* a portrait'—after that her work developed along quite different lines. Her poem, *African Portrait*, is published below.

All agreed that the most stimulating and releasing factor of all was the reading and criticism of the poems that came in. As the feeling grew that *everything* was acceptable as expression though not equally valuable as poetry, new reaches of individual achievement were attained. Moreover the literary critics themselves began to gain a new authority: an authority supported by our own immediate experience; and passages from Shelley and Spender were read out, not so much as beacons for our following, but rather as microscopes through which our own specimens were seen more clearly and minutely.

This spread of understanding worked in an unexpected way in another direction. One of the members wrote:

'There may be all kinds of repercussions from this week's happenings. In my letters home I enclosed two of the free-verse passages I had written here, and this morning in a letter from my aunt, who is nearer seventy than sixty and has seldom read (and never written) poetry since her school days, I found the following which she had written straight out on the back of an envelope whilst drinking lemon tea:

Sometimes I feel so old—
The smell of burning leaves—
The early film of frost upon the grass—
The shorter days—
All speak of Summer's glory gone.
And yet—
I know the leaves will come again
The grass will flaunt new ribbons—
And I?
Shall I not somewhere in the creative plan
Attain new birth?'

The discoveries which were made in this group, as a result of this nine-days' experience could fall under two headings: Psychological (relating to group and individual psychology); and Poetic (relating to theories of the relation between form and content, the relation of unconscious and conscious thought in composition, symbolism, standards of judgment, and so on). But it would take a book itself to encompass all this; and it

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By H. S. Guntrip

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SONS AND DAUGHTERS

By Dr. Roger Pilkington

It is the object of this book to describe the mechanism by which the uniqueness of the individual is brought into existence, and how, though superficially paradoxical, the unpredicted birth of genius is part of this brilliant mechanism. Dr Pilkington traces the development of the embryo into the human baby, and gives a detailed account of the basis of heredity characteristics, stating the present knowledge of human heredity.

Contents are: The Road to Babyhood; Everything in the right Proportions; The Basis of Heredity; Equipment for the Baby; The Origin of Difference; Genes and the Individual, Genes and the Future. There are scores of photographs of unusual excellence and the work is written with a lively humour which marks it as a book of outstanding merit. 18s. net

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seems that we need much more experience of this kind of work before enough evidence is gained of the general validity of these findings. Nevertheless, as the psychological pattern which emerged resembled very closely, but with more concentration and intensity, what I had observed from previous experiences with original writing classes both with children and adult students, it might at this stage be worth the attempt to formulate this to some extent, for our help and guidance in English teaching along these lines.

Psychological Pattern of Development

The members had joined the group with different aims, different academic and professional backgrounds, different sexes, ages and nationalities. The first process was one of reaching down to the level of individual need. This involved a period of regression, in which the painful discovery was made that what people had thought were objective valuations of literature, poetic standards, abstract logical arguments, were often as highly charged with subjective feelings as the poetry they were studying and writing. This regression was accompanied by a good deal of anxiety which

resolved itself to some extent through the transfer of feelings upon the leader—feelings of affection, respect and admiration, and feeling of hostility, disappointment and, at times, dislike. These feelings were also sometimes deflected from the leader upon other members of the group, upon other groups, upon the conference as a whole. Because as a group we were verbalizers, most of the feeling was expressed in argument and discussion, or in the satirical or lyrical veins running through the poetry. As soon as feeling became mobile and began to run in two directions, a marked change took place in the quality of work which resulted, and confidence grew. Insight was gained as both positive and negative feelings were tested out together.

The Poems

The eight poems published were selected from the final twenty as follows: Six judges were chosen who were qualified judges of literature. They were—

1. An English graduate, now in a publishing firm dealing with literary manuscripts most of his time—(man).

- 2 and 3. English graduates (man and woman)
on the staff of an Institute of Education.
4. An English graduate—a Professor of Educa-
tion—(man).
5. A Modern Language teacher in a girls' Public
School—(woman).
6. A Modern Language graduate, also a doctor
of medicine and a practising psycho-analyst
—(man).

Their choices were as follows:

1	2	3
Black Boy Singing	Magic Animals	I met my Love
The Ship in Danger	African Portrait	Voyage to a Birth
Rain in the Afternoon	Black Boy Singing	Black Boy Singing
Magic Animals	The Ship in Danger	Her Voice
African Portrait	Farewells	The Ship in Danger
Hornèd Dragons	Hornèd Dragons	Full Joy
4	5	6
Black Boy Singing	Death Take me Now	Black Boy Singing
African Portrait	I met my Love	I met my Love
Magic Animals	African Portrait	Hornèd Dragons
Her Voice	Love's Grave	Magic Animals
It isn't quite Enough	Let us not Part	Her Voice
Farewells	Farewells	Rain in the Afternoon

The remarks sent in about these show that the poems which were voted in common were chosen for very different reasons, and comments on the remainder reveal quite amazing disparities. In fact the judgments of the judges have borne out what we were beginning to feel in the group—that there are certain standards of literary judgment, though how these are gained it is very difficult to say, for it would seem that they rest upon certain common factors in our total subjective responses. But this we left an open question, as has the opinion of the judges.

MAGIC ANIMALS

Monks in cloisters weave a pattern
Round the margins of their books.
Curling birds and coiling fish
Interlace in snaking whirls—
Red and blue in brinded dances
Patterned through the green and gold.
Twists and turns the Celtic circles
Motifs of Byzantine wealth,
These creatures crawl in secret stealth
With eye on reader,
Tail in mouth.

BLACK BOY SINGING IN A NURSERY SCHOOL

The others sing, but Song takes him,
Ripples his body like the wind through rice,
Helpless he swings through centuries of Time
From Past to Future of his glorious race.

Play with him, son, the shining boy !
See how the sunlight flies upon his lips,
He is not wound up, a clockwork toy
Fitting to Western keys his prancing hips :

Pray that his mother in this subdued land
Rocks him to sleep with rhythms of the South,
Clothes him with colours of the humming birds,
Guards him with laughter from our sad restraints.

THE SHIP IN DANGER

The Scylla of the apple-tree
Lifts tortuous fingers to the moon,
Tossing upon a cloudy sea.
So, once upon an afternoon,
Golden Ulysses left the shore
Of dying Troy for Ithaca.

Charybdis eddies in a cloud—
The airy whirlpool swirls and sways—
The moon-ship rolls : The stars shout loud
For wonder at her devious ways.
But still the lovely, lonely barque
Sails on in quietness, in the dark.

HER voice makes inroads on my consciousness.
O mother, yet no mother,
Speak to me in my desolation :
Cover my soul and give it flesh
That flesh and not my soul be wounded utterly.
Frail coverings repair
And leave only the memory of a scar
Without connivance of the outside world.
Dark is the night
And black the vision,
Filled with the intimate, insistent, unknown
Flutterings of sickly, minute wings against the skin.
Protect me now and at the hour of my birth.

AFRICAN PORTRAIT

Dark gold of suns
Fierce in their heat,
Smooth-carved in their glow
African head.
Eyes of the night,
Lit by stars
Twin in the darkness,
Burn between lids
Black fringed,
Brow arched.
Mouth carved brown,
Not red, beneath
Broad nose spread
To catch jungle-scent ;
The whole smooth-born
From sun's crucible.
Hair tight curled,
Close capped, not to break
Smooth line of wood
Oval carved by sun :
Withdrawn, magnificent.

RAIN IN THE AFTERNOON¹

The rain is falling down to say
 Monotonous its melody ;
 Sunshine has gone ; the grey in grey
 Fills me with deep melancholy.

Has not the morning leapt so bright
 Into a mid-day warm and strong ?
 Why does this rain take off the light
 Of evening ere night comes on ?

Can human plans never succeed
 In finding full accomplishment ?
 Is all beginning bound to lead
 On to a broken-hearted end ?

Why don't you fall down noiselessly,
 Disturbing rain, why can't you stop
 This knocking at my memory
 That life is over at its top !

I MET my love in a long lane,
 And sweet was the grace of her.
 She fled from me as life were pain,
 But I followed her.

We jumped the hedge, skipped into the sun :
 High over the mountains we leaped to run.
 By river and stream
 She stopped to dream
 Yet fled, ere I came to her.

By twist and turn of sudden path
 She endeavoured to elude me.
 The stars flared up, the moon dripped blood,
 But in a morning coppice wood
 I caught her.

¹ Several of the judges recognized that these verses were by one of the German members of the group, whose slightly unfamiliar idiom conveys her meaning so clearly.

FAREWELLS

Across the world's great spaces
 Among a maze of men
 We turn to former places
 And ways of life again.

And oh it's singing sadness
 And yet it's ever true
 That parting may seem madness
 But old things will be new.

Final Comment

It was inevitable that an experience such as this, in which many people came very close to their own deepest feelings and conflicts, should cause a doubt to enter their minds. I was asked many times—'If this subjective approach to teaching is to be encouraged, how can we be sure that the controls of the personality will not be seriously disturbed?' This is really asking what is the fundamental relationship between fact and phantasy. It is a very proper question. I was aware when I went into the Mathematics room at Chichester that here was poetry of another kind—shapes and forms that followed objective laws, and were not the results of our subjective fashioning—and I saw how necessary are both patterns for the design of living. For it is only in so far as we can come to terms with ourselves that we can appreciate the pattern of other people's lives and the geometry of the universe—and those who deal in the latter must take care too that they are not using incontrovertibles as a protection against what in themselves remains vulnerable and capable of giving and receiving pain.

NOTES ON THE MOVEMENT GROUP

Betty Meredith Jones, Laban Diploma of Educational Dance and Movement Study

MOVEMENT is the meeting-place of all the arts; there is a give-and-take between it and painting, music, sculpture, dance and drama. Spontaneous and creative movement is an essential part of life, but few find it easy to be creative in movement, particularly not adults who have pursued no form of movement throughout life. One can perhaps express oneself more quickly and with less self-consciousness in painting or music, for movement demands the whole being, the body itself becoming the expressive instrument, and this needs more courage. By attempting to discover the facts that underly all human effort, we can make a new approach to movement, but this demands a change of attitude.

For most of the people who joined it, the

Movement Group gave an opportunity for discovery, as it did also to me, because what we achieved grew from our common exploration of movement. Each individual was able to express himself in his own way as he developed in understanding. The Group consisted of three men and fourteen women—of German, Italian and British nationalities. They chose the Movement Group for various reasons. Some wished to discover a new approach to movement in another country; some were interested in music, painting or other art forms and needed the experience of free movement to find solutions to their difficulties in these arts. Through a very simple approach, which introduced the factors underlying all human movement, everyone in the group was



At the beginning . . . working as individuals

able to build up an understanding from within. Nothing was imposed, and much opportunity was given for discussion and observation.

At the beginning each member worked entirely as an individual, finding his own way, exploring how and where he could move, but later members began to lose their self-consciousness and worked sometimes in twos, sometimes in small groups, until a group sense was built up. A gradual slackening of tension became evident, each individual becoming more aware of the others, more 'out-looking', and so the group became an integrated whole.

The technical aspect of movement was not consciously stressed but, in spite of this, each member found that his own performance improved. We were extremely fortunate in being able to work out-of-doors on the lawn for most of the nine days, and this helped enormously in giving people a sense of freedom and space. After the first few days, general movement developed along several different lines. By pooling ideas, of which there was no shortage, we tried several ways of building up group effort through working rhythms from everyday life, dance-like movements, and dramatic movement.

As we had no music, we had to work with the tambour and with the great variety of sounds which we created with odd percussion instruments. This helped the group to feel that it was sometimes good to establish and maintain a common rhythm. So many people are happy at first only when they can do a movement to their own rhythm, by which they often mean their own *time*, forgetting that rhythm involves the factors

of strength, speed and space. Rhythm is one of the most essential factors of movement which each individual has to feel for himself. It varies tremendously from one person to another.

The final theme, to which Mr. Zilliacus refers, was a combination of working rhythms, dance rhythms and dramatic ideas, conveyed in a group dance of contrasts between work and recreation, city and country life. Machine rhythms and the unnatural speed and tension of city life resulted at first in a tense and frenetic form of dance and play, turning gradually to relaxation and freedom. Four small groups took part in this, each working out its own rhythm which fitted into the general pattern. At this point particularly we missed music, and a few people who were interested volunteered to provide this. One member of the Movement Group, herself a musician, composed a piece for four pipes and percussion, and this was a delightful idea because we were anxious to integrate with as many of the other groups as possible; moreover, it provided the necessary stimulus for the group's theme. Then we tried to indicate men working with their hands in the fields and on the land. Here again, members of the group worked out their own rhythms, such as scything, gathering and harvesting, and all these tended towards the development of much more harmonious swinging movements and to primitive forms of dance. Opportunity for individual ideas and interpretations to develop was given by the miming of imaginary happenings by the whole group.

This harmony of integration in doing, being and thinking is an experience from which we can



Later . . . in twos or small groups

learn much at a time when we are all aware of a great need for the strengthening of human relations. So many people long for freedom and rhythm in movement but can enjoy it only when alone because of self-consciousness and fear of self-expression. When a group meets for the first time for movement they quickly feel the need to become an integrated whole, for 'oneness' is more important in movement than in other forms of art. The means of communication is not the spoken word and everything needs to become a collective effort. Effort has become so much concentrated towards thinking in academic work that it has become necessary to re-educate people into realizing that thought is not the only proper outcome of effort. The imagination has to be re-awakened.

After working for some days, the Movement Group realized how deeply everybody needs to experience this form of art, whatever other interests they pursue, because it is the basis of life. We would have liked to have persuaded all the conference members to join us for some part of the day but there was no time. Perhaps this could be considered at a future conference. We did, however, arrange two open sessions. One

was combined with the Painting Groups; after movement out of doors the class tried out shape and form in colour on large sheets of paper. This was an experiment which might have been carried further had time allowed.

There are many ways in which men can realize their oneness, but it is essential that each individual first experiences movement. It is not possible to experience by watching a class what one can do by taking part, because awareness must come from within. If a movement is really sincerely felt, something of each individual goes into it. With confidence this grows until movements are created quite freely.

It is extremely difficult to write about an experience in movement because, once it is performed, whether it is one movement or a whole dance, that moment has gone for ever and there is nothing left to show; it may never be felt in quite the same way again, whereas in painting, sculpture or writing there is evidence of the moment which endures. Nevertheless, the group itself volunteered at the close of the conference this statement of the harmony which had developed: First the harmony of the group; second, the harmony between psychological and physical

development; third, the harmony of social relationships with a feeling of well-being which made it easier to understand and enjoy other forms of creative work.

The Chichester conference was 'an attempt to discover something about the creative renewal of the individual as a person, and an experiment to see if in an environment of relaxation and with group work in the company of kindred spirits, the individual can capture something of those creative moments we all know at rare times.' I feel, from my own observation of the improvement in each member's movements and from the general contribution which each made to the conference as a whole that the Movement Group did achieve this in what they finally built up together.



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INTERPRETATIVE GROUP DISCUSSIONS

E. L. Herbert, Department of Education, Manchester University

IT was my task at the Chichester conference to lead the Interpretative Group Discussions. There would be at most eight sessions of about an hour and a half each—these were finally reduced to seven—held on consecutive days. I was asked to take two groups, one in French and one in English. I stipulated that neither should contain more than ten members, the maximum number for such a group when all reactions—including one's own—have to be watched for possible interpretations.

The following extracts from my diary may give some idea of the way in which each group developed:

French-speaking Group

AUGUST 1ST. Ten people present: four Belgians, three French, one of whom lives and teaches in Belgium; one Czechoslovakian; two English, man and woman, both of whom are fluent French speakers. Except for the two latter, members had never heard of Interpretative Groups. I try to explain briefly what I am aiming at and my position as 'negative' leader. The recording procedure is adopted, after which we introduce ourselves. There is some difficulty about choosing the *rapporteur*, and the group turns to me, which gives me an opportunity of pointing out that groups usually expect authority from the leader.

AUGUST 2ND. One member, the Englishman, absents himself. The group is now exclusively composed of women.

The group immediately sets about the task of finding a topic for discussion. Proposed: 'Is it desirable that educators should pursue social and cultural interests outside their profession?' Even before the topic is adopted, discussion starts. All teachers have too much to do, but one member claims that this is particularly true of her since, as an Infant School mistress, she has a strong social influence. A Primary School Head Teacher insists that her influence is obviously greater, and a Grammar School mistress stresses the over-riding importance of her work since she deals with incipient adults. Feelings run quite high, and the

realization that such quarrels can arise between people who are friendly to each other and eager for good human relations is received with some surprise by the protagonists.

Return to topic. All members show some fear that their progressive methods may be misunderstood by their successors. The Englishwoman in the group raises the question of married women teachers and explains the situation in England. The consequences of too severe an upbringing, leading to excessive disciplinary demands on the children, are discussed. Necessity of recognizing and accepting one's own unconscious tendencies. Slight impatience shown when it is realized that the topic is not yet fully agreed upon.

AUGUST 3RD. The topic is now formulated again: Is it desirable that teachers should enrich their own personality through the pursuit of social and cultural activities in order to benefit their pupils? The importance of the teacher's needs is gradually becoming recognized: (1) she should be enabled to study the child in his different environments; family, school, society; (2) 'Is the good teacher the one who can *be* a child?' Danger of infantilism. Danger of enlarged conscience, i.e. guilt feelings which obliterate the realities of social life and make the school a thing apart.

AUGUST 4TH. Difficulties—administrative and others—in the way of a teacher's leading a full life. Remedies suggested mainly of a practical nature: higher salaries, shorter hours, etc. Doubts about the teacher's right to strike, although in a working class district in Belgium parents proved to be sympathetic about this. The teacher cannot reconcile his right to freedom with the complete devotion which the public expects of him. I suggested that a great many teachers accept this need for abnegation as an axiom.

Relations between parents and teachers. Need for effective collaboration which, I point out, may be prevented by two-way unconscious jealousy. This repressed jealousy may produce over-compensations in the excessive abnegation of some teachers.

Mrs. Herbert concludes:
'Finding ourselves in interpretative group discussions in conflict between our wishes as individuals and our needs as members of the group, we teachers begin not only to understand but to feel how John's behaviour in class is affected by that of his comrades, by their attitude to him and to the teacher, and by the teacher's attitude to them all. We grow more secure in our judgments, and learn to be severe or lenient for good reasons that take account of the whole situation.'

Discussion turns to specific cases: difficult children, delinquents, neurotics, children who lead a double life in which they carefully keep home and school apart. Dangers of giving the child too heavy a responsibility by granting him complete freedom.

AUGUST 6TH. Discussion continues about children and responsibility, led by L., a teacher of '*classes nouvelles*' in a French *lycée*. (L. had absented herself during the last two sessions.) She finds that adolescents of fourteen to fifteen often refuse to take part in these new methods, particularly in activities such as mock parliaments, etc., which they find too childish and artificial. This word constantly recurs during the session and leads me to interpret it as a description of the actual group work which appears unreal: someone had stated yesterday, with reference to the interpretations, that too much introspection is bad and leads away from reality. Children's revolt against imposed activity methods represents this group's hostility to my group method. Members object that they want me to lead, which is in fact an ambivalent wish: a direct demand for authority and a rebellion against the kind of indirect authority I exert by imposing 'free methods'.

AUGUST 7TH. The group point out the danger of psycho-analytical and other topical methods in teachers' hands since teachers are not trained. Problem cases should be dealt with by specialists. One Headmistress describes specific cases. She always consults a psychiatrist, but does not always feel able to accept his advice. The psychiatrist often treats the parents as well as the children. My question: 'Does he ever treat the teacher?' arouses some surprise, but one by one all the members of the group realize the importance of the teacher's reactions on the behaviour of the child.

In the case of 'normally naughty' children, is love not enough to enable the teacher to understand children? Long discussion which leads to the realization that love is never unmingled with dislike—references to earlier quarrellings in the group.

L. brings a fresh problem. A minority group in her class refuses to work with the others. She loves them as much as she does the rest of the class, yet she cannot get them to conform. Discussion leads her to admit that she dislikes them when they behave badly, though she feels she should love them. She discusses the profound sadness she feels when she is rejected by these girls. Thereupon a member of the group relates an incident about which she feels guilty. The French-speaking group had arranged a bus

outing on the Sunday. L. was one minute late, the others forgot all about her and went off. The whole group then rush in to apologize and state that they cannot understand why they should have forgotten her. I reminded them that L. had been absent on August 3rd and 4th, which they may have resented. 'Oh, but she had toothache!' I had to explain that this distinction means nothing on the unconscious plane and that the group felt she had deserted them, which led them unconsciously to revenge themselves by unconsciously forgetting her. I take this as evidence of a group feeling. Thereupon all members of the group assure her of their affection and of their gladness when they saw her return. The recognition of behaviour based on unconscious antagonism has enabled this group bond to be strengthened:

AUGUST 8TH. The main business of this last session is the preparation of the report. Yesterday's incident is reluctantly reported to C. who had been coming on alternate days only. 'It's a pity she couldn't have attended every day!' C. full of apologies. This incident, which is interpreted by one of the members, confirms the interpretation of yesterday's incident; the group feels united.

The great question is who should read the report? Resolved that the *rapporteur* (the same member had acted in this capacity throughout the seven sessions) should discuss the report with the English member, who would read it to the conference. She was asked to show the evolution of the group and to point out the effect of interpretation, principally with reference to three important turning-points: (1) the discovery of unexpected antagonism; (2) the need for teachers to examine their own unconscious motives; (3) the revelation of the positive bond that unites the members of a group when antagonisms have been recognized.

English-speaking Group

AUGUST 1ST. Twelve people present, including two Germans, one Swiss, and nine British members, one a New Zealander. Three of them have specific knowledge of Group Dynamics. All the others confess to being in the dark about the purpose of the group. There are common feelings of expectation, interest, and of slight apprehension. I asked the members to introduce themselves to one another and I lead off in this. We decide that a record of the sessions will be made by a different member each day. My position as leader is questioned. Do we need a leader? If so, why Mrs. H., not one of us? Some refuse to accept my leader-

ship, others ask for it, one says she 'does not mind'. There is a long silence which I interpret as the group's fear of its own aggressiveness in trying to reject me. This is confirmed by one member later on, while the others ask me to lead by providing a topic. I decline and suggest that the finding of a topic might be the first 'group task'.

AUGUST 2ND. I ask whether the group wishes the record to be read out. Disagreement breaks out. I interpret their inability to agree on this small point as a sign that the group is still questioning my leadership, since the suggestion that the report should be read aloud came from me. Finally the record is not read.

Members discuss the reality of the group feeling, some denying it. Request that we should discuss an 'unemotional' topic draws a remark from me that the members are at one in refusing to be emotionally involved. One member attacks the idea of a topic. Another says she feels guilt. Three members challenge one who has hitherto been silent and ask her to judge, i.e. act as leader. Two topics are suggested but no decision reached.

Two questions are raised that concern the group: (1) a member newly-arrived asks if she might join; (2) could observers be admitted? Both requests are refused by the group; these are their first group decisions.

AUGUST 3RD. In reporting to a member who had been absent yesterday the 'group' is several times referred to. This again draws the question: 'Are we a group?' The essence of a group is unity of objective. Consciously we want to be a group and we try to maintain our unity by not allowing disagreements to come up. A topic, I suggest, would be an advantage as it would provide us with a task comparable to those of the other groups at the conference. This is accepted—and the topic of 'Democratic versus Autocratic government in school' is suggested. The discussion shifts to my leadership once more. Am I to be an interpreter and/or a contributor? Can the group come to a unanimous decision?

Decided to discuss: Group Relations in Government.

AUGUST 4TH. A general discussion meeting

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attended by all members of the conference that had taken place last night led to the examination of the group's relations with the rest of the conference. Some antagonism feared because we are unable to explain what we are doing. Return to discussion of the group's aim. Why did each one of us come? To learn group techniques, to allow for emotional and intellectual differences. Let us frankly discuss differences.

Barks for a battle. 'I want to have a bash at something.' Begins with an attack on psychology. Topic chosen (i.e. Group Relations in Government) not real enough. Members growing impatient. One German member: 'At the end of five minutes each one should suggest a topic.' Refusal: too authoritarian. Quarrelling continues. Suddenly German member suggests: 'Co-education'—which I interpret as an attempt at conciliation. 'Can international peace be brought about by rearmament?' (The method the group is using, i.e. quarrelling.)

A silence ensues, broken by the question of meeting without me on Sunday (when groups do not officially meet). Discussion. Teasing one another. I point out that they are talking about themselves, though topic has not been fixed. Return to co-education. Short and superficial discussion.

Evaluation of discussion: There has been less tension. Sex problem has been discussed, which is a topic of universal interest. Reference to world outside, and the discussion returns to

our relations with the other groups at the conference *via* the proposal that we should give a report on the last night.

AUGUST 6TH. Desultory talk first. Then a silence. It has been suggested that each group 'skits' itself on Tuesday and gives a serious report on Wednesday. How to do both? Admission of a feeling of dismay. Why? Are we afraid of ourselves? Frustration. I suggest that we are willing to laugh at ourselves but will not allow others to laugh at us. The topic had helped us. Now we feel strained again as we speak of ourselves.

Return to co-education. Use of love stories in teaching literature. The group is clearly discussing its own emotional bonds. Long discussion on the reality of love relations in groups. We note that we can now discuss love without embarrassment. I refer to the shadow of the impending separation which makes a group deny the strength of the emotional bond by laughing at itself. Discussion of goodness and considerateness.

I am able to show that though we started with the discovery of the aggressiveness in groups we have now found that the love link is equally real.

Decision not to make a skit on our own group.

AUGUST 7TH. Two outside events influence this session. (1) The day before, I have been asked by a group of American students and their leaders to explain the Interpretative Group methods. Some members attended this meeting and discovered the differences between my method and the American one. (2) I had retired immediately after supper the previous night. In the evening, about eight or nine members of the English-speaking group had met the French group and some other conference members informally and had discussed their work. As a result they had decided to reverse their decision and had partly planned a skit on themselves for to-night. When I come in the atmosphere is hilarious, reminiscent of that of a class of adolescents when the teacher enters. This hilarity obviously hides something but I wait. A slight hint that they are secretly planning something makes me offer to withdraw. They refuse. Silence. Then someone relates last night's meeting and the reversal of yesterday's decision about the skit. They go on to wonder why they changed their minds. Someone suggests a feeling of guilt towards the other groups. Someone else refers to the meeting with the American students which 'enabled us to form a picture of ourselves by contrast'. Praise of my method, possibly a way

of making amends for the attempt to exclude me at the beginning of the session.

Further discussion of the skit. I was not to appear—only my bag, spectacles and cigarettes as symbols of my presence. (This serves an ambivalent purpose: I am not to be directly attacked but I am to be excluded.) The skit is to consist of no words, only a 'pregnant silence'. (Another ambivalent decision: 'Have a skit but let it give nothing away.') They then returned to last night's unofficial meeting: 'We had a lovely time, we were a real group, quite leaderless.' (!) I referred to the positive feelings expressed yesterday. Are these feelings going to make parting too painful? In this case the skit would serve a double purpose; it would allay both the pain of parting and the guilt towards the other groups. Moreover, it will make inclusion into the larger group (the whole conference) possible. Theoretical discussion about the custom of skitting at the end of a conference: Attacking the leaders? This is denied, since we feel that in this conference 'staff and members are one'.

Feeling seems to change. 'I should be quite happy if all the groups gave up the skit'—'I don't care about the skit, I care about the group', etc.

All the time, however, it is taken for granted that the skit will take place. Pain of parting discussed again: I remind them of the story of the shepherd who killed his sheep in order to prevent them dying of disease. Kill the group by laughter and you will not suffer its loss. But the loss is real for me, as much as for them.

AUGUST 8TH. Yesterday afternoon one member of the group told me that they had decided to give up the skit. No explanation. Other skits take place in the evening. Group sticks together feeling a little out of things.

For the first time we have a specific task imposed on us from outside: Group must produce a report to present to the whole conference to-night (the last evening). Discussion of form report shall take leads to examination of group experiences: we could not fight because interpretation helps us to understand other people's attitudes. Suggestion that we hold a group session in front of the conference rejected because unauthentic. Every proposal is destroyed by the appearance of the opposite trend. I suggest that this very ambivalency is our peculiar discovery in this group, and should therefore be the main theme of our report. How is ambivalency to be resolved? First we had to accept it in ourselves. We have found that we hated our own aggressiveness

less. We wanted to love others but were afraid of love because of the bond created by this love. Decision to make ambivalency the theme of the report. I am asked to give an explanation—not an apology—for our not joining in the skits. A historical report? This would be authentic, but we feel that the effect of this week will go on and on and we should say so. Analogy with family life, when the younger members marry and have their own children. The family—the group—does not die.

The *rapporteur* is chosen. I am to see the report and provide some kind of general explanation at the end, after the French group has also spoken.

If, as members of both groups assured me at the end of the conference, they had learned a great deal from their experience, it is equally true that I myself gained much from it. Apart from the pleasure of contacts with people experimenting with similar problems (the leaders of the six other groups), conducting two such different groups as the English and French-speaking ones provided me with a number of lessons which I will attempt to summarize:

There is one broad similarity in the evolution of the two groups: the two fundamental reactions to others, i.e. hate and love, were revealed in both, but for me the interest lay not so much in their expected appearance as in the manner in which they appeared, in the reactions they provoked, and in the use to which they were put.

The main difference between the two groups was in the extent of their awareness of group dynamics. Some members of the English-speaking group had some degree of both theoretical and practical knowledge of these. They understood, for instance, the liberating effect of interpretation when emotional obstacles appear. This caused some difficulty, since they tended to interpret at too early a stage for members of the group who had had no previous experience. They watched themselves and others very carefully and, as some discovered towards the end of the conference, they adopted an intellectual attitude which often the adoption of a topic for discussion in which all could freely join. We did not achieve such a topic until the week was well on the way and until both the prepared and the unprepared had understood one another and so could form a group. More time and more widely-spaced meetings would have been needed to evolve further from that point.

The French-speaking group was much more

homogenous. The English woman member was the only one with any previous knowledge of the technique and the group gave her the rôle of adviser and deputy leader. Finally she was chosen as the group's representative. Perhaps things were equalized to some extent by the fact that she too was handicapped—though to a very slight degree—through having to express herself in a foreign language. Having all started from the same point, they could learn together as a group at a much earlier stage. Hence the sensational discoveries they could make and their wonderment at entering what to them was a new world of knowledge.

This double experience confirmed me in the belief that it is most important for the teacher to experience and understand group reactions. We all know theoretically that the behaviour of a class is not simply the result of the sum of individual attitudes—but that is not enough. Finding ourselves in conflict between our wishes as individuals and our needs as members of a group, we begin not only to understand but to feel how John's behaviour in class is affected by that of his comrades, by their attitude to him and to the teacher, and by the teacher's attitude to them all. We grow more secure in our judgments, and learn to be severe or lenient for good reasons that take account of the whole situation. These Interpretative Groups represent a replica of the situation in an activity class, in which the teacher tries to be a democratic leader, to guide his pupils without subduing them, and in which he learns as much as he teaches.

For this as well as for the friends I made during my stay at Chichester, I shall always recall with gratitude the free and friendly atmosphere of the N.E.F. conference.

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THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

THE CITÉ DE L'ENFANCE, MARCINELLE

THE Cité de l'Enfance at Marcinelle is on the western edge of the Black Country in Belgium. At the back of some of its houses are fields with grazing cows, where the children can watch small-holders tending their cattle and poultry. But downhill on the other three sides stretches a fantastic landscape of slag-heaps, steel works and factory chimneys. The sky glows red at night from smelted metal, and right across the Cité runs an overhead cable carrying an endless double chain of full and empty coal trucks.

The Cité and its children belong to an industrial civilization. A hundred and twelve of them are fatherless and, though some of the fathers were shot or died in deportation camps or of disease at home, many of them have died in mining disasters or from other industrial hazards.

It is not surprising that the inhabitants of such a region in one of the richest and most highly civilized countries of the world should have felt the need to organize their Social Services thoroughly and generously. About fifteen years ago a move was made to centralize the services of thirty-three Communes grouped roughly round Charleroi, and, on the 31st July, 1937, the Inter-commune of Social Services for the Region of Charleroi was established, according to the Belgian law of the 1st March, 1922, which authorized and encouraged such associations.

The first Inter-communal Service to be undertaken was the Maternity Hospital of Queen Astrid. Apart from the perfection of its purely physical care of the mothers and their babies, there is in evidence a very sensitive psychological understanding of the mothers' feelings. The place deserves a monograph to itself—so do the homes for old people, the Vocational Guidance Centre, the convalescent home and school for delicate children, and other services already in full operation or being planned inter-communally for the region. But we are here concerned with the Cité de l'Enfance, the second of these enterprises to be undertaken and perhaps the one that holds

first place in the minds of the Inter-commune administrators and draws most heavily on their funds. The first stone was laid early in 1939, on the original plot of twelve acres (five hectares) and by the outbreak of war in May, 1940, some ten *pavillons* were completed and about forty-four children were already settling down in them.

Evacuation and War-time

Immediately on the outbreak of war, two lorries arrived from Charleroi to take twelve of the smallest children, with their house-parents, over the French border. The rest were told that, if possible, lorries would be sent next day but, if none came, they were to make their way on foot to France. This they did, in charge of one assistant and the senior house-mother, who is still at the Cité. They had some big boys with them, nearing military age and, as the military situation rapidly worsened, they often felt they had to choose between saving these from capture and alleviating the hardships of the younger children. Once it was the big boys who chose. They were all hiding in a cellar in a village newly taken over by the Nazi armies. They smelt petrol being sprayed in the rooms above and realized that the house was probably to be fired. The big boys insisted that the house-mother must go and tell the occupying troops that the cellar was full of orphans from the Cité. She warned them that it would probably mean that they would be deported, but they said, 'Never mind that.' It turned out all right. The Germans gave them ham and sweets and told them they could go where they liked, big boys and all, so long as they kept off the roads. They got themselves to France and all the way home again on foot—straggling in in small bunches by the end. The

[I was asked by the International Federation of Children's Communities to spend a fortnight at the Cité de l'Enfance at Marcinelle last summer. This report is published at the request of the President of the Federation, and may interest *New Era* readers as it gives some idea of the in-and out-of-school activities of Belgian children to-day, as well as of a social experiment which solves, in a Belgian context, a problem common to all countries.—ED.].

babies, who had got safely to Cambrai in their lorries, came home on foot, too. Several of them are still in the Cité and they remember washing in a vat in a cellar and being allowed to splash the water, and everything being great fun. One little brigand of nine came back with forty-four toy revolvers for the children and a bottle of scent, a packet of rice-flour and a huge bunch of lilies of the valley for his house-mother—these last picked in the woods coming along, the rest, of course, looted.

The astonishing thing is that all forty-four children got back safely. As they straggled into sight of the Cité and saw the roofs of its houses intact, after all the destruction they had seen on their way, even the weariest ones cheered up—and soon they had all settled back into the life they knew.

The war bore hardly on the Cité children, though less so than on many children in Europe. Occupying troops were billeted in three of the *pavillons* and the administration was taken over by Quislings, so that all the original personnel was obliged to leave. Food was, of course, terribly short, but the children were here together, going daily to the schools they already knew. And other children whom the war made homeless gradually joined them. Immediately after the Liberation, large priority rations were sent to the Cité. A few of the old house-mothers came back, and new ones were carefully chosen. So that soon all the *pavillons* were open again, the children's health was built up day by day, a further six hectares were added to the estate and new construction was soon under way, which by now—Midsummer, 1951—is almost completed.

The Cité as it looks to-day

It is possible to describe the lay-out of the streets of a city and the nature of its buildings; harder to describe the aspect and occupations of its inhabitants; and hardest of all, the spirit of the life that is lived in it. But all must be attempted for the *Cité de l'Enfance*, where the connection between the three is more visible than in places of slower and more haphazard growth.

The members of the Inter-communale knew very clearly what they wanted for these children and had thought through their plans very carefully before the first stone was laid. Their aim was not merely to save them from the physical misery that a homeless child must suffer. It was

something much more difficult: to give each child a new warm home of his own, in which his natural helplessness could grow into independence, his natural ignorance into all the knowledge and skill of which he is capable, his natural grudge against society into full social participation and good citizenship. The planners and their architects could not, of course, achieve this dream. A home is only made by the people who live in it. But what the planners could and did do was so to arrange the bricks and mortar that the rest should become possible.

So they built a series of houses—*pavillons* as they call them—not in rows, but dotted over the wide, high estate, clear above the soot and smoke of Charleroi. They are two-storied and flat-roofed, red brick for the ground floor and deep cream for the upper, with plenty of window space. They are very light and airy, cool in summer and warm in winter, which is severe on this hill-top. The space between them—much more extensive, of course, than the buildings—is planted with a great variety of flowering shrubs, with beds of bush-roses here and there, and a great deal of grass, not cut as lawns but left rough for the children to play on. There are plantations of small conifers, and old trees have been left standing round the outskirts for the many birds to nest in. The roads, which wind all over the estate, are paved with stone sets which dry as soon as the rain stops.

It all looks a little raw as yet, of course; but in another few years, when the bricks have weathered and the bushes have grown into their full beauty and the grass has settled down, the outside of the Cité will be as comely as the inside of the *pavillons* is at present.

Most of the thousands of visitors who come to see the Cité come in the day-time when the children are at school or at work. This is a very good thing, as it saves the children from the horrible feeling that they are a peep-show for any curious stranger. But it means that most visitors do not begin to see the Cité as it really is; all they see is the extraordinary perfection of the planning and furnishing of the *pavillons* and of the ancillary buildings.

Each *pavillon* houses a house-mother with her family of sixteen. They are all almost identical as regards the buildings though very individual as homes, as will be seen later. The most newly erected have slightly improved upon the original

plan. As you approach the front door you almost always see growing flowers on the window-sills on either hand. The front hall is wide and spacious, floored, like all the rest of the house, in charming grey and cream tiles of some warmish composition. The pleasant boxed staircase in some light wood rises directly opposite the front door, but the width of a large room away. On your right is the children's playroom or sittingroom, according to their age. This is large and light, with a private two-shelved cupboard for each child's personal possessions, tables and chairs that can be pushed aside for games, a radio, flowers, of course, and a large radiator beneath each of the three wide windows. In the daytime it has an impersonal tidyness, but at night, with the children all doing their various things in it, it becomes a real living-room.

Beyond the playroom is the cloakroom, where out-door clothes are kept, and school cases when home-work is done with. The big girls complain that the hooks were designed for boys and do not leave room for their largest hats, but this argument only crops up when someone complains that the room might be tidier. Actually it always seems astonishingly tidy! Beyond it are plenty of wash-basins and water-closets.

On the other side of the hall is the dining-room—the same size as the playroom—where the children eat, four at a table. There is a serving-hatch and, in the newer *pavillons*, a wall-wide glass window between it and the very well-equipped kitchen and, beyond it, a scullery, as pleasant as any room in the house, where the large refrigerator stands and the vegetables are prepared.

Upstairs are two bathrooms, with a bath and foot-bath in each, and hot and cold showers. In the *pavillons* for the younger children there are also two washrooms, each with eight individual hand-basins, and two large light dormitories with eight beds apiece.

The *pavillons* for the adolescent boys and girls have been rather differently designed so as to give them some real privacy and peace. Instead of the long dormitories, there is a row of eight single bedrooms in each of two corridors. These are not cubicles but have a good stout door with a key to it, and a wide double window. They are about 15 feet by 8, plainly but most comfortably furnished, with a fitted cupboard, a table and chair, running hot and cold water and a good



Part of the Cité through an archway

mirror, and a bed with a well-sprung mattress and delightful bedding.

Each *pavillon* has a back-door opening on to a small paved courtyard, partly roofed, which can serve as a dryingroom and for many small domestic chores. This is the door the children use on coming in from school, as it is near the cloakrooms, but not necessarily at other times.

The Inhabitants of the Cité

There were 247 children at the Cité on the 26th May, 1951—94 girls and 153 boys. The following tables give an exact breakdown of their age-groups, family situations, schooling, and apprenticeship or employment:

				I	
Age				Boys	Girls
Between	3 and	5:		6	10
,,	5	,, 7:		12	6
,,	7	,, 9:		15	13
,,	9	,, 11		14	16
,,	11	,, 13:		29	12
,,	13	,, 15:		30	13
,,	15	,, 17:		17	11
,,	17	,, 19:		13	10
,,	19	,, 21:		11	3
Over	21:			6	—
				—	—
				153	94
				—	—

II. FAMILY SITUATION

Complete orphans	71
Fatherless	41
Motherless	38
Illegitimate	20
Removed from their homes because of parental neglect	6
Placed by various local authorities but whose parents are still living	60
Placed either by their parents or by various organizations	11
					247

III. SCHOOLING

- 27 attend Kindergarten (aged 3 to 6).
- 147 attend local primary schools.
- 3 are at transitional schools (quatrième degré).
- 8 girls are at the technical school.
- 9 boys attend the Université du Travail Paul Pastur, one training as a skilled mechanic and the others in various departments.
- 1 boy is at the higher technical school at Morlanwelz.
- 1 girl is at the higher technical school at Charleroi.
- 7 children (4 girls and 3 boys) are at high schools.
- 8 young people already at work are following various evening courses.

IV. TRADES OR PROFESSIONS OF OLDER CHILDREN

Seven girls:

- 1 pharmacy assistant, 1 tailoress, 1 stock-keeper, 1 hairdresser, 1 is making hand-made shoes, and 2 are learning to look after the younger children at the Cité.

Thirty-seven boys:

- 7 shoemakers, 11 carpenters, 2 masons, 1 chauffeur-mechanic, 1 sign-writer, 1 telegraph boy, 1 butcher's boy, 1 office boy, 2 plumbers, 2 apprentice-bakers, 1 apprentice-mechanic, 1 moulder, 1 apprentice-solderer, 1 electrician, 1 apprentice-clockmaker, 1 apprentice-turner, 1 central-heating fitter, 1 shop assistant.

It will be seen from the last two tables what a variety of schools and trades the older children are following. All of them, on leaving their primary schools, are given a thorough vocational

guidance test at the very modern and well-equipped Provincial Office for Educational and Vocational Guidance at Charleroi. The reports from this Centre (which, of course, make the fullest advisable allowance for the child's own wishes) are forwarded to the Local Authority or other body responsible for the child's maintenance. It is very seldom that any objection is made on the grounds of expense, even if the recommended course is long and costly. This means that the Cité can truly claim that its children receive the training for which their natural gifts and physical strength best suit them. It can also claim (though it never seems to do so) that not one of its citizens, when they grow old enough to go out to work, is exploited here in the Cité's own interests either as domestic worker, handyman or in any other capacity.

General Spirit of the Cité

Home and family mean so much in the total development of a child that one is bound to question whether an artificial family, however good and homelike in its material setting, can begin to replace what the homeless child has lost. It must lack the continuity of relationship and the organic growth that makes a good home the starting point for a good life. It must lack too the grandparents, aunts, uncles and cousins; everybody's memories of nice and nasty happenings; the quarrels that reconcile themselves; the dogs and cats—all the common shared things that make up family life.

At the Cité the children have no shared memories from early childhood. Each has a private, and most of them a painful, family history. But, after spending some days among them, one begins to realize that all but a very few of them are collecting a shared present, chiefly because the people about them make it possible for them to do so.

Most of the house-mothers do have the feelings that mothers have about their children—the nonsensical ones as well as the rational. They also have very uncle-like and aunt-like feelings about the children in other *pavillons*! The President and his wife really are like grandparents—not in age, but because the children hold them in slight awe—as one does one's grandparents, in spite of knowing that they are more indulgent than one's parents and quite as loving. The rôle of the Director and his wife is a little harder to

define. They are super-parents as far as most of the children are concerned, and, of course, they must support the house-parents' discipline. But to the older girls they certainly represent a very personal benevolence and, of course, for all the children, they are *the* representatives of their needs and wishes *vis-a-vis* the Local Authorities, schools, employers—indeed, the whole outside world.

And the children themselves? Except for a few of them who seem to be able to accept only superficially all that the Cité offers them, I think that they give the impression of being family children. They are responsive but with a natural reserve; they are generous but not madly so; they can stand up for themselves and for each other; they can quarrel and make it up; they can take a scolding and try again; and they are really

kind, not merely polite, though they are that too. All those with whom I had any contact went out of their way to greet me and to help. And as for the children in the *pavillon* in which I spent a fortnight, the warmth and delicacy of their concern for me has been such as, I think, only happy and secure children can display to an odd sort of incomer from another country.

This report is supposed to be critical and, indeed, I have certain criticisms to make that those responsible for the Cité have long had in mind. But, as a conclusion to this first chapter, it should be stated that living in the Cité is not like living in a good boarding school, much less an orphanage; it is much more like living in a home amongst neighbouring homes, because the children, in the main, are at home with themselves and with their surroundings.

ONE PAVILLON AT THE CITÉ

WHEN I was asked to come and spend a fortnight at the Cité and write this report, I made certain conditions. One was that I should not spend twenty-four hours in each *pavillon* but should be allowed to settle down for the whole time among a group of girls of eleven to fourteen—the age that, thanks to my own children, I know best at the moment. So it was I who chose C.4, not knowing anything about it, and though now, like all its other inhabitants, I feel quite sure that it is the nicest in the Cité, it was *not* specially selected for me by the powers-that-be as the show-piece!

The children were asleep when I arrived and, as I lay in bed, very uncertain of how the Cité would receive me in the morning, I wondered how a twelve-year-old must feel on his first night here. However sore his feelings, surely the exquisite cleanliness and the quiet must soothe him? Or would these seem the strangest things of all? Later I collected a few first memories of the Cité and they were all, though at least four years old, of *exactly* what they had for supper and *exactly* what their house-mother wore.

I was told that the children always get up at 6-30 and breakfast as soon as they come down, but that I was not to hurry. I woke to great sounds of industry, and emerged on to a long corridor, with a chair and table neatly piled with bedding standing outside most of the seven doors. Two little girls of twelve in pinafores were going

from room to room, turning the mattresses and making the beds with great precision. I asked them if it was difficult and they said, 'No, Madame', very politely, if a shade scornfully. I never asked the question again, for I found that various household jobs were very carefully parcelled out according to each child's age and capacity; were changed every fortnight; and that there was a certain impatience among the younger ones to be allowed to do the harder jobs. Colette, for example, who is only 9½, did nothing in the house but grind the coffee twice a day when I arrived. She is not exactly a conscientious or duty-loving child, but she was absolutely delighted to be put on to scraping new potatoes, and has been doing it with glee each day since.

Belgians have a national passion for washing everything within sight. (I have even found them scrubbing the outside walls of my own home which are encrusted with three hundred years of London soot!) When I got down to the hall that first morning this passion was in full fling. Louisa, the household help, had just scrubbed the whole ground floor. It was bubbling with white suds, and two girls with a charming swinging motion, new to me then, were drying it with cloths. Their house-mother, Mamy as they call her, was reminding them in rather sharp, dry tones of exactly how a floor-cloth should be rinsed and of how often the bucket must be re-filled with clean water. Frowning and peering

and in the same rather piercing voice, she was also teaching the twelve others exactly how to perfect their tasks—washing up the breakfast things, laying the tables for dinner, preparing the vegetables, listing the soiled linen and taking it off somewhere to be washed. The girls were all very seriously at work and took little notice of me. I was not sure I liked the scene—it looked joyless and there was no way of telling that the children were not cowed. Certainly Mamy had a will of iron and eyes all over her head—but she did not seem very benevolent.

Later I realized various things. This was Saturday morning and the girls were taking over new duties, some of which they had never done before and none of which they had done for several weeks. I was watching a real lesson in housewifery and Belgian women are very expert housewives, partly because they are carefully taught to be so at home as children. These same jobs were done on all the other mornings I was there with a certain gaiety and without the sharp instructions except where some child had a lapse. Furthermore, I have remembered, what I should have had in mind that first morning—that a good Belgian home is considerably stricter than a good English home, just as English parents are stricter than American ones. The scene that struck me first as rather harsh would probably seem to any Belgian child quite natural and homelike. Last, and most important, I have realized that Mamy is all benevolence.

She must be well over fifty and, like many Belgians, has a face that you know from the history-books—that full brow and full blue eyes, the long nose and too-small chin that has no weakness in it—it has been there throughout the long story of the Low Countries though you cannot quite place the painter or the scene. She comes of a large and very united family. She has seen the world, spending the 1914-1918 war in England and most of the years between the wars in Paris, bringing up a widowed brother's children. She is a woman of many interests. Several times the children told me things in detail, about the life of some musician or the names and descriptions of certain constellations they could recognize easily, and each time I asked them 'Where did you learn about that?' they would say, 'Oh, Mamy told us.' She loves life, for herself and for her sixteen little girls, and shows them daily that to love it you must live it

thoroughly, even in details such as darning a stocking or watching a play. It is rather a strenuous lesson, never given in words, but in the unceasing attention paid to, and demanded for, every detail of C.4's daily well-being. And I think it is the cornerstone of her children's new-found security.

I collected brief case-histories of all the children from the records that the Local Authorities send to the Cité; from the Cité's very good and thorough medical records; from the children's teachers; and from their house-mother. I also got them all to write down the things they like best and dislike most at the Cité. Rather to my surprise, they did this willingly and all seemed to think it rather fun to help in this way with the report; so that, though not very much of what they say is illuminating it was at least given with spontaneity.

Here are six of them:

COLETTE—aged 9·9, came to the Cité in March 1951. Her mother is alive but unmarried and very poor. She comes quite often on visiting days¹ to see Colette and her younger sister who is also here. But she does not always come when she says she will, *e.g.* not last Sunday when Colette particularly wanted to show her off to me. She is a sturdy fair little girl with high cheek-bones, deep-set grey eyes, and a good deal of colour. Very warm family feeling—insisted on broadcasting greetings to her sister at the 'Fancy Fair' this June—held at the Cité to collect money for all the inter-communal enterprises. All the others were most scathing about this and said she ought to have greeted the President and Directors instead. Told me twice that *nobody* was dead in her family, nor anybody ever ill. Says she is afraid of dogs, men, using apparatus in the Gym.—indeed 'I'm frightened', said with a grin and a wriggle, is her theme song.

Medical Report: Has put on ten pounds during her three months here; good general health.

School Report: Needs to wake up all round. She needs to be handled with some sternness as she is inclined to take liberties if one is easy with her. She is nice with the other children and may pick up and do quite well. Sixty-seven per cent. on the year's work.

House-mother's Report: She is really too young to be in C.4, but I took her on because she promised to be so very difficult. Actually she has made great progress in these three months and I think she may settle down and do quite well.

Colette's likes and dislikes: 'I like working; I love Mamy, Mme. V. (very nice), Mme. P. (her supply house-mother during Mamy's leave). I like the girls; I like the animals; I like the Director and his wife—very kind to me; I love my sister, brother and my mother. I do not like it when people quarrel with me or scold me; I don't like playing cards.'

ELÉONORE—aged 14·3, came to the Cité early in

¹ Visiting days are alternate Sundays throughout the year. Parents must have written permission from the Local Authority to visit. They come in quite good numbers and bring presents, mostly food. On the other Sundays the children are allowed to go home for the weekend if the Local Authority considers the home fit to receive them, and unless the child has been outrageously naughty.

1942. Her mother is dead and her father a wastrel who used to come and take Eléonore out with him when she was here as a little girl, but he always took her to cafés where he drank heavily and brought her home very sick and distressed. She is a big, well-grown girl, rather athletic, with a very poor blotched skin and short-sighted brown eyes corrected by very thick lenses. She needs frequent baths and douches to keep herself fresh, but she is beginning to take real pleasure in making herself look nice.

Medical Report: She had her tonsils removed in 1949 but has otherwise a clean bill of health and is both growing and putting on weight satisfactorily now.

School Report: She is not a bad child; is sometimes bad-tempered but not more frequently than a lot of the others. She needs a great deal of affection and works well and makes real efforts for those who give it her. Percentage on the year's work, 61.

House-mother's Report: Eléonore needs a great deal of care, but she is beginning to take responsibility. She is full of curiosity and knows all the news of the Cité long before most of the adults, but she does not usually put her knowledge to spiteful ends.

Eléonore's likes and dislikes: She was the only child who was rather suspicious at being asked to put these down and at first refused to put any dislikes because she said, 'They would show these to the powers-that-be and get me into trouble.' The others all coped with her over this, and here is her list: 'I am very glad to be in C.4. My house-mother is nice to me; she helps me to keep myself nice. I like working with Louisa. I am very glad to be going to the seaside. I like the Director and his wife and the President and his wife. I am very glad to be going to school. I do not like some of the food; some of the girls, and some details.'

FRANÇOISE—aged 14 exactly, came to the Cité in September, 1948. Her father, who was a gardener before the war, rushed out prematurely to greet the Allied liberating troops and was shot in the back by a sniper. The mother has T.B. and is leading a very unsatisfactory life with a series of men. She won a large State lottery some time ago but squandered it all on her lovers and sent nothing at all to the children; neither did she bother to go and see the little sister whom the Cité put into a sanatorium near the mother's home so that she could easily be visited during her six month's preventive treatment there. Françoise is a beautiful child, fair with hazel eyes and very delicate features and a great air of refinement both in her face and in all her ways.

Medical Report: Françoise is debilitated and was very neglected and delicate when she first came. She has continued to have positive Mantoux but the state of her lungs is normal.

School Report: 'She is a very careful, intelligent and nice pupil and got 86 per cent. in her passing-out examination this term. We hope very much that she will do some good professional training and not merely be apprenticed to a hairdresser, which is what she herself seems to want at the moment. She is a very sensitive child and extremely loving to all her family. It is impossible to scold her younger sister (aged 11) at school because Françoise immediately flies to her defence, although the little one is wayward and selfish and really needs the kind of correction we try to give her. One day I was giving a routine lesson on T.B. and fortunately noticed the painfully close and eager attention with which Françoise was listening to it. I remembered that the little one had been in a sanatorium and passed on without change of voice to describing the measures taken to prevent, detect and cure T.B.



Mammy looks in on a Sewing Bee

nowadays. The lessening of painful tension in Françoise was quite visible.'

House-mother's Report: A terribly sensitive child. If you say to her 'You shouldn't have done so-and-so' or 'You have forgotten again to do something else' she usually cries, and when you ask her why she is crying it is not because she is being scolded but because she forgot. She and her brother and sister were evacuated to a very nice farmer and his wife during the war and when they went back to the mother these people continued to send food parcels which the mother never acknowledged. Fortunately, and quite by chance, this foster-mother found the children here in the Cité, and now has them to stay with her every holiday and is very good to them.

The elder sister, who is only 17, is already in a house of correction and is expecting an illegitimate baby this summer. She wrote Françoise a horrible letter about a year ago, full of details of her life and her mother's, which were bound to give Françoise pain. I read her only the parts with family news and no spiteful comments or unpleasant details and then tore the letter up. Eléonore (see above), although she can hardly read, pulled the pieces out of the wastepaper basket, pieced them together, and showed them to Françoise who was in a terrible state about them—angry with me for having kept the news from her, and bent upon going home at once to try to help her mother and sister. I told her that I thought her wisest way was to stay at the Cité, learn a good trade and get a good job so that, later on, she would be in a position to help them really constructively; whereas, if she went home now, she could only become a drudge in a very difficult home. She came to my room at midnight that night with a letter she had written to her local Authorities and said, 'I have thought over why you tore up the letter and what you have advised me to do and I understand it all now, and I have written to my Local Authority saying that I am glad to be here and would like to stay until my education is complete.'

Françoise's likes and dislikes: 'I like the President and his wife and also the Director and his wife; they are very good to us all. I like C.4 because we all have our own rooms and also because it is so clean and light.

I like the gymnasium and swimming. I do not like the milky foods.'

GINETTE—aged 15·3, came to the Cité in July, 1948. Her mother is dead and her father in a mental hospital. She has a younger sister in C.4 and two brothers (aged 8 and 13) also at the Cité. There are also some older brothers and sisters out in the world, some of them married. She is tall and elegant and very charming-looking with curly brown hair and blue eyes, fair skin and beautiful hands and feet and the long legs and good poise of a dancer.

Medical Report: She has a clean bill of health since coming here and has put on weight well. The posture of her spine makes her look a little delicate, probably because for several years before the mother's death she was caring for the father and the three younger children and doing far more work than she had strength for.

School Report: Ginette is a very persevering pupil and will certainly get a good place in a technical school and do well there. She had missed a great deal of schooling when she came to the Cité but, by last summer, she had made up so much of the work that she was allowed to jump the Vth Form and she got 84 per cent. in her end-of-term examinations this year—a wonderful result in view of her earlier handicaps. She is a very courageous and strong character, one of the nicest girls I have ever taught, and with a little luck she should have a good and useful life.

House-mother's Report: She had far too much responsibility as a child for her younger brothers and sisters and therefore had a great deal of schooling to make up, but she has gained something from her early hardships. You can tell that she has brought up smaller children for she knows how to manage the younger ones here and get the best out of them without bossiness. She is a girl of excellent judgment and gives everyone, including me, good sound advice when we turn to her for it.

Ginette's likes and dislikes: 'C.4 is very nice and very well-kept; I like it because I have a room of my own and because it is so light and clean. I like the Director and his wife—they are very good to me—and I love Mamy. I do not like some of the girls, who are too little and who are always quarrelling. I do not like giving orders and I do not like having to see that the little ones eat up their food properly and behave well.'

HERMOINE—aged 13·11, came to the Cité in July, 1948, sister of Ginette. She is a dark Belgian showing strong traces of Spanish ancestry—black hair and beautiful dark hazel eyes, with a dark skin but warm colouring. She is not very popular in the house; they find her disobliging and bossy, but I think she is unconsciously very jealous of the universal esteem in which her elder sister is held. She was both kind and very intelligently helpful to me throughout, and she has extreme frankness which often may seem rude but which I felt was part of an essentially good, stout character. She is one of the only two girls in C.4 who go to the High School in Charleroi. Her end of term results were only 69 per cent. because her French and Flemish are very weak, but she got excellent marks in Mathematics and Science and good ones in Painting. She wants to be a hospital nurse and, though the general feeling is that she is too rough and unsympathetic to do well at this, I think that, given luck in her training, she might make a very fine one.

Medical Report: In September 1950 she had a positive Mantoux and has had 'flu twice this year, but is beginning to gain weight again.

House-mother's Report: Not a very stable girl; she takes up things with enthusiasm and drops them

fairly quickly. You have an exaggerated opinion of her worth because, being new, you have seen her at her best. She does not easily accept reproof, always wants to be in the limelight, and has a sulky temper. They say that this is very like her mother's character and I feel that Hermione will always be the same, though she may learn to modify some of the manifestations of her fundamentally unfriendly character. She is certainly too rough to be a hospital nurse.

[Hermione, being one of the two girls in C.4 who are at a Secondary School, broke up and went to the sea a week earlier than the others. I was not able to find out what her teachers thought of her, nor to collect her 'Likes and Dislikes'].

ARLETTE—aged 12·8, came to the Cité at the end of January, 1951, from a very unsatisfactory orphanage which has since been closed down. Both her parents died of T.B. but the records do not say when. She has a grandmother, an elder sister and two grown-up brothers 'at home' and says she would much rather live with them. She is dark and slim, with very beautiful eyes, olive-complexioned with regular, delicate features—exceedingly pretty but without much depth or promise.

Medical Report: Slightly debilitated; positive Mantoux; lungs normal; had her tonsils removed in April, 1951.

School Report: Not a very interesting child; seems indifferent to school life; messy. Percentage on year's work 53; arithmetic very weak, French more promising.

House-mother's Report: Hasn't been here long enough for me to feel I know her. She came with a bad report from the orphanage, in fact labelled 'vicious'. She has frequently taken books and small possessions from the others and hides them very cleverly amongst her own things. She once persuaded a child at school to steal money from her mother's purse and give it to her. She is always busy with things that don't concern her; loves bed-making because it gives her access to other peoples' rooms. Often offers to do a job and leaves it half-done.

Arlette's Report on the Cité: 'I like beer; I like doing the jobs I have to do; I like everything; I like the life of the Cité but I should like to be at home. I don't like porridge; I don't like sardines; I don't like peeling potatoes; I don't like fish.'

These are the rather meagre notes that I could gather about some of the C.4 girls among whom I lived for a fortnight. If they can stay with Mamy for another four or five years, most of them should be able to step out into life with reasonable confidence in themselves and their feminine accomplishments, and with a courageous attack upon life. Some of them should get great help from the resident psychologist who has just been appointed to the Cité: Arlette with her pilfering, Colette who compensates for her unknown father by her repeated claim that nobody has died in her family, Hermione with her rough aggressiveness and her longing to be a boy, and Françoise with her troubled and passionate love for her broken family. Mamy has a direct intuition about their needs and a very unegoistic and unexploiting love for them. I think she can do all that need

be done for them, given all the outside contacts they have and some skilled psychological help for these four.

During the last half-hour I spent with her—for she went off on her nine days' annual holiday a few days before I came away myself—I told her with some diffidence that a school teacher had told me that Françoise, of all the Cité children, was miserable and would really like to leave. She might well have counter-attacked, either by criticizing the child or the school teacher, or me for listening to and passing on outside gossip about one of her children. But Mamy went straight to the point—Françoise's unhappiness—and without sentimentality or fuss tried to think out ways of helping her. 'She *can't* go back to her hopeless mother and sister—she'd break her heart and ruin her health and do them no good until she herself is older and stabler and more experienced and has a really good job for which she's been fully trained . . . The little sister is very naughty and difficult—I *can't* have her in C.4 just yet, with Colette and Jeanne so unformed and only beginning to steady up . . . But

Françoise is going to miss that little sister more than ever if she goes off to the Technical School next term and can't see her every day in school and fight her battles. I think I'd better promise Françoise that I'll have the little one here for good at Christmas if she makes a real effort to behave more sensibly and pull her weight. That would mean that Françoise could go over after school and help her sister to behave better in her present *pavillon*, instead of doing as she does at present, protecting the little one from the school's perfectly reasonable and kindly attempts to correct her waywardness and help her to grow up.'

That is a good example of how Mamy sets about her work—reflectively, unhurriedly, economically, and with true imagination of each child's strengths and weaknesses and needs. She says that justice is the one essential in a house-mother—that one cannot help loving some girls more than others, but that one must *never* indulge these preferences. But her own sense of justice is no mechanical doling out of fair shares for all. She patiently and with great foresight—often it must be at great cost to herself—gives each child her due.

HOUSE-MOTHERS

JUST as the main social life of the Cité children lies within their own *pavillons*, so the main work of bringing them up, of helping them to un-learn what was distorted or inadequate in their early up-bringing and to learn anew how to face life, lies upon the house-mothers. These have been chosen upon three main grounds: their expertness in the domestic arts; their liking for children; and their own good health.

A house-mother's life is very arduous in terms of physical work. She is up before 6-30 in the morning and cannot go to bed until the last of her children are there before her. She cooks four meals a day for her family of sixteen; is responsible for keeping their clothes in good order and for the general orderliness and beauty of her *pavillon*; she has to give the children any training they receive in good manners and behaviour; and, where they are of school age, she takes a very active part in seeing that they get their homework done and in helping the backward ones with things they find difficult. It is true that each house-mother has a really good daily cleaner for four or five hours and that where these women are themselves fond of children, as is Louisa in C.4, they

play quite a large part in teaching the girls how to carry out various domestic duties. With the older girls too the house-mother does not herself have to do their mending, but she has to teach them how to do it and to see that it is done. When I first came in touch with some of the *pavillons* I felt that the burden laid upon the house-mother was beyond an ordinary woman's capacity, but, as one gets to know them a little, one realizes that, given good powers of organization and the kind of feelings that the children's needs awaken in them, their duties are not impossibly hard though they certainly are onerous.

Two of the house-mothers—perhaps two of the best in the whole Cité—are unmarried women, though each of them has married sisters and brothers with children. Three are widows with children, two also having grand-children. Three have divorced their husbands—one of these having a child of five living with her own parents; and there are three married couples. Only one of these has both husband and wife working in the Cité; another husband goes out daily to work; and the third works in a neighbouring town and lives in the Cité only at weekends.

Each house-mother in theory gets three days' holiday after nine days' work, though this arrangement often breaks down so that they work for as much as a fortnight, or even a little more, without a break. During these short leaves their places are taken by one of four supply house-mothers. One of these is an unmarried woman in her early thirties, who may become a full house-mother; another is an elderly widow with a son and two grand-children of her own; another has divorced her husband and has no children; and the fourth has a crippled husband who lives with her married daughter, who has a little girl.

The first occasion on which I was struck by the motherly feelings of the house-mothers was when I was sitting more or less idly, watching the children being weighed and measured as they are at the end of each month. I had really gone because I had already been struck by what a friendly and happy place the Dispensary seemed to be. The children come in and out to have small hurts attended to or are brought by their house-mothers at any time if anything more serious seems to be the matter with them, and the whole place was a kind of refuge where a child could sit down and cool off or be comforted and talk about his troubles or anything else that came into his head. I went to watch the weighing more with the idea of getting a general picture of the children than with any particular interest in the house-mothers. But it was soon obvious that their feelings were exactly those of young mothers bringing their children to a Welfare Clinic. They showed the same slight anxiety and tension before a weighing, relief and pleasure when the child had gained, and anxiety and even guilt when his weight was stationary or when he had lost a pound or two. This was the first time that I had realized that these people were not overwhelmed by their hard housework and that this was not even their main preoccupation. I think that the children's own progress and well-being is the source of all the energies that the house-mothers display on their behalf, and that in most cases their real preoccupation is with the children themselves and their real source of anxiety any setback in their general progress.

I saw this same motherliness in the Gymnasium where the house-mothers go to supervise the hot shower-baths and to bring their family back resplendent after their hour's gym. Here, too, I went to see the children and was struck by the

demeanour of the adults, and it was this interest that made me ask several of them whether I might go and spend an evening or a tea-time with them in their own *pavillons*.

The one I visited most often was that for the little three-year-olds, and I never came away very happy from these visits, whether I had seen the children at play or at a meal, or, as on the last evening, in their baths. I feel quite sure that it is impossible to run a 'family' of sixteen children of three or four years of age in such a way as to give them what they really need for their intellectual and emotional development. Their *pavillon* was one of the few places in the Cité where I felt that the aim of its founders was failing, not through any fault of the house-mother or the two older girls who were helping her, but from the system itself. This system is to be changed in the very near future, and I feel rather sorry to have to report adversely on it here.

I had breakfast in the *pavillon* for the next age-group of children—boys and girls of five and six—and, though I expected to find rather the same state of affairs here, I did feel that these children were happy and interested, able really to play with each other, and able, after tea, to induce some of the bigger children from other *pavillons* to come and play with them. Their house-mother has a boy of five of her own and evidently loves and understands this older age-group who are, of course, of an age to be more



Breakfast with the 5's and 6's

able to share an adult's affection and to get on without any close personal relationship with a mother-substitute. I think that if the Cité is able to alter by gradual degrees their rather rigid division of children into age-groups, these five and six-year-olds will gain by the greater diversity so provided, but I did not feel, as I did with the babies, that they were bored, unhappy children, in need of a great deal more mothering than any one adult could possibly give them.

Another group amongst whom I spent a very happy evening were the boys of eight and nine with their tall, rather lanky house-mother—the only unmarried woman except for Mamy of C.4. She has something boyish about her and she has created a very happy atmosphere for her family. She has been at the Cité for three years now and I am told that she has learned a great deal and that at first she had great difficulties in keeping the *pavillon* in order and the boys good and happy. If this is so, it is certainly a state of affairs that she has out-grown.

I went to supper with her family and got there too early. It was the end of a long, hot Sunday, and each of the eighteen little boys had a cold shower and a most thorough soaping down before their evening meal. They washed themselves with extraordinary thoroughness, apparently because they knew that their house-mother would do it for them if they left any corner unscrubbed; but they looked so well and merry and were so extraordinarily spick and span when it was all over that, though the whole thing took almost an hour and a half, I enjoyed every minute of it in spite of my own hunger. They ate an incredibly large supper in complete silence; the house-mother said that at that age she finds she almost has to have silent meals. But after supper we all had a lot of talk, about swimming—they could all swim and they say that every child who has been at the Cité for a whole summer can do so—about their holidays, and about their cat which had been brought in for the sake of one little boy, an orphan brought by his grandfather who said the child just could not live without animals. The boys were very gentle with the cat, and they had just the usual sort of collections of everything that happy boys of this age do find collectable. I asked them if they would like some of the little three-year-olds in the house with them, but they thought they would be too small and might get hurt. I am not quite sure

they are right, judging by the well-being of the little cat, but I daresay that an admixture of young children in this particular *pavillon* would be almost impossible for a house-mother to manage.

I particularly liked the house-mother's attitude to the boys. She never picked one out for comment, and when one of them said he was much the naughtiest boy in the house and the others backed him up, the house-mother said, 'Oh, I think that one would be *ill* if he could not be naughty'—a very true joke.

I also had tea with the neighbouring *pavillon* for the little girls of ten and eleven. They were very busy with singing and dancing games and sewing, and some of them were playing lovely family games with the next *pavillon* of five and six-year-olds. These little girls, who are nearly adolescent, are thought by most of the other house-mothers to be the most difficult in the Cité since they are at a more restless and complicated stage than most. Their own house-mother, who is already a grandmother and very calm and rosy-faced, does not agree at all and says she would not change them for any others.

There was only one meal in the Cité, apart from that with the babies, that I found painful, and that was in a *pavillon* for much older boys of thirteen to seventeen, half of them already out at work or in apprenticeships. This is probably the best-run *pavillon* of them all—exquisite orderliness in all the cupboards and corners, charming flowers and flower-arrangements, and a really superb meal. It is rather hard to criticize a home in which I have received, on two occasions, really perfect hospitality, but I did feel here that it was the orderliness of the household rather than the growth of the children that was the house-mother's main preoccupation and pride. The discipline was a completely iron one.

Of course, this age-group must be a difficult one for any house-mother and I dare say she is right in claiming that when they get into the Army they will find the chores there easier and the discipline more familiar for her efforts. But, after all, she is supposed to be providing a home for homeless children not pre-military training for boys nearing military age.

She was away on leave during my last three days at the Cité and when I went to see how the boys were getting on without her I found them among the friendliest I had met. They were the only ones who really asked me questions about

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England and France and made general comments on other foreigners they had met; so perhaps the discipline that I resented on their behalf is not really such a burden as it seemed.

All the same, the evenings I spent with them were in dramatic contrast to the one I spent in a *pavillon* for slightly older boys, fifteen to eighteen, all of them at work. The house-parents here are a married couple. The husband is the master-shoe-maker of the Cité and his wife, the sister-in-law of the Cité doctor. This *pavillon* is really a home. The boys told me a great deal about their various apprenticeships and compared notes with each other about the comparative difficulty of the training and the prospects it gave in later life. They played the mouth-organ to me, and talked to each other four at a table throughout the meal without in any way drowning the very interesting talk of their house-parents. Those who wanted to smoked, none of them wore collars and ties, and nobody tried to show me the inside of a cupboard. The general atmosphere was one of extraordinary courtesy and aliveness. They told me that all political parties were represented there and that they often had hot political arguments, and all of them read the papers, though most of them more for the sports news than for news of the world.

It all seemed just right and I came away very happy; as I did also from the evening I spent with the big girls. Here the house-mother was new—a very nice, sensible widow who had taken up her work at the Cité on the very day after her only daughter's marriage. She was so easy with the girls and they with her that I even wondered whether she was sufficiently in charge. (When I passed round cigarettes, she said that she did not know the rules yet so it was quite all right if the older ones smoked!) But later in the evening, when all but the four eldest were in bed and they and I were sitting talking in English, she came in to consult them as to how to get more order into the cloakroom, and the seriousness and courtesy with which they took up her challenge and made suggestions seemed to show that she knows quite well what she is doing and can get them to run their home in a seemly and pleasant way without too much direction.

I had to choose between seeing a very little of all the *pavillons* and spending a rather longer time with a few of them. I did try, of course, to discover in conversation with the Director and

his wife, with the house-mothers whom I got to know and with people in the Dispensary, whether there were some *pavillons* that I really ought not to miss either because they were shiningly successful ones or the reverse, but, so far as I could gather, the one I have criticized was the only one of its kind. Most house-mothers seemed to feel that the children in their own *pavillons* were of the age and kind that they loved best. I think that each of them has one or two children who

seem to her more difficult than the rest, but each time there was a feeling that these are the ones nearest to their hearts. On the whole, their loving common-sense and their immensely hard work does seem to provide the children with what they most need, though I could not help feeling that all of them will find their work more interesting and more rewarding when they are given more help over the psychological needs of growing children.

CITÉ ACTIVITIES OUTSIDE THE PAVILLONS

THE only times when all the Cité children come together are at St. Nicholas and Christmas, neither of which, of course, I saw. They do not meet for choral singing or any kind of group musical appreciation, which seems rather a pity since the beautiful gymnasium, where there is fully room for them all, has an excellent radiogram. Neither is there any kind of religious ceremony for the Cité as a whole, since it is strictly non-denominational and the children's religious instruction is carefully provided, for those who wish it, through the schools. I never therefore saw the whole population of the Cité together on any one occasion, though, as I went about on a sunny evening or on Sundays, I did see many groups at play that contained children from more than one *pavillon*. As already suggested, the Dispensary has almost the air of a club.

During the holidays the adjacent *Plaine des Jeux*, which belongs to the Commune not to the Cité, is thrown open to the Cité children all day long. Here in holiday times they have their lunch and tea. There are very good club leaders who teach them to swim, run soccer and basketball teams, and help them with all kinds of activities. There is even a specially skilled teacher who goes for a couple of hours each day and to whom any child who is backward in a lesson or particularly interested in any subject can go for private coaching, suggestions and help. The children are not sent to these holiday teachers by their own schools or by their house-mothers, and it is interesting to hear that so completely voluntary an activity is so popular. I never saw the *Plaine des Jeux* in action, as I left the Cité on the very day that the Primary schools broke up, and it was only from the children themselves that I got the above rough outline of its activities and of the facilities it offers. There may, of course, be others that nobody happened to mention to me,

but several of the children told me that it was so nice to go there that they would just as soon have a holiday at home as go to the sea. The house-mothers, of course, find it a great boon since it means that just at the moment when they would otherwise have all the children about for the whole day, their burden is lightened by there being no dinner or tea to prepare.

I think that one item in the children's lives that many other children would envy is the Gymnasium. Two regular instructors, a man and his wife, come there daily from about 3 o'clock to 8, and every child, except those from the two youngest *pavillons*, comes three times a week for an hour. I was particularly interested in the work done with the girls—free, swinging movements done to music but based on Swedish gymnastics—and some excellent apparatus work and ball games. The teacher really knows each girl and gives a good deal of quiet comment about their anatomy and physiology and about the value of the exercises to their development as women. They also do folk dancing; the most beautiful are the old songs and folk dances of the Charleroi



miners. I had never seen other than rural folk dances before, and to see these children repeating the songs and dances of their great-grandparents with so much grace, tenderness and wit was a very charming and somehow touching experience. It must give them a sense of continuity with the hardships and risks—and the happiness too—of the region in which they were born. They also do some very charming rhythmic dancing which they call ballet, though it is not on points.

The lessons are beautifully varied and balanced and one feels that all the muscles they need are being used but without any strain and tension and without the over-development of arm, shoulder or leg muscles. After the hour they all have a hot shower and go away looking and feeling as though they had inherited the earth.

The boys' work looked to me a good deal more conventional, though it was quite good of its kind. I did not have the feeling that it was one of the happiest things in the week for them as I did with the girls, nor did they move with the poise and gracefulness which is conspicuous in all the girls from the older *pavillons*. One of the first questions I asked Mamy was why her little C.4's moved about the *pavillon* so beautifully, and she said at once that she thought they owed it to the good work they did in the Gymnasium.

I found later that it was not only this. Both the Primary school and the girls' High School

had a considerable amount of dancing, in which every girl seemed to take part. When I mentioned this to one teacher and said how much I admired this aspect of their education, she said, 'Oh, but I thought we had copied it from the English High Schools!' If so, I feel that, on the whole, they have carried the lesson much further and with more success than their mentors have done!

Another Cité activity quite outside the *pavillon* is the shoemaker's shop. This is important because it is the forerunner of other enterprizes—a bakery and a butcher's shop and a hairdresser's—at which those of the youngsters who wish can do their apprenticeship. I did not know that a cobbler's could be as pleasant, light and sweet-smelling as is this one at the Cité. It is very large, upstairs, and perfectly equipped for twelve apprentices, though at present there are only four. Here all the shoes of the Cité children and house-mothers are mended, so are those of the old people from the old people's home and of the nurses at the Maternity Hospital and of all the employees of the Inter-communale. This means, of course, that the workshop is highly economic as well as affording the apprentices a thorough and varied training both in shoemending and in shoemaking. I spent an hour there watching their swift and skilful methods of work, talking to them about why they had chosen this trade, what they got paid for it, and where they hoped to practise it once their apprenticeship was complete. The man in charge of it is, of course, a master-craftsman himself and is the house-father at the *pavillon* for the oldest boys already referred to. He had created the same atmosphere of freedom and seriousness here as in his own *pavillon*. If, when the bakery and butcher's shop and hairdresser's are completed, the people in charge of them are as highly skilled, both as craftsmen and instructors of the young, their work will be a great enrichment to the life of the Cité.

Once the adolescents are at work, the Local Authorities expect them, of course, to contribute towards their keep at the Cité. Each takes his earnings at the end of the week to the Director who forwards them to the Local Authority. A proper balance is returned to the adolescent for his own use; saving is encouraged but by no means enforced, and twelve of the big boys have already quite considerable amounts in their savings banks, the highest sum being 39,000 Belgian francs and the lowest 7,000.

Apprentices at Work



ATTEMPTS TO ASSESS OUTSIDE OPINIONS

SINCE the proof of the value of the Cité's work for its children will lie in how they can adapt themselves later on to life outside the Cité rather than in their happiness while they are still there, I tried to find out, as far as I could, how those who see them mixing with family children outside the Cité walls feel about them. I went several times to the primary school, and here I would like to pay tribute to the extraordinary helpfulness and understanding of the Headmistress and her staff. It is an old and shabby building, within a minute's walk of the back gates of the Cité, and I was encouraged to drift in whenever I liked, watching the children both in the playground and at work, and asking the teachers' opinions of them.

The Headmistress said that, whereas some years ago she could always pick out the children from the orphanage (which the Cité has replaced) because they looked more miserable and shabby than the other children in the school, the very reverse was now true; the Cité children were better dressed and better cared for than most of the children from the families round about, and on the whole they tended to come out at the top of their school classes. This is because time and quiet is provided in the Cité for homework and because the house-mothers take a real interest in the children's weekly reports and a real pride in their progress. She said that the older girls tend rather to hold aloof from the family children, not in shyness but because they feel in themselves a strong group solidarity. While understanding this and feeling that it may have value for the Cité children, she did try to discourage it in school, to mix them all up and to treat them all alike. She herself takes the Fifth and Sixth forms, in one room. The two teachers who took the Third and Fourth and the First and Second forms respectively said very much the same things—that the Cité children were at least as lively and adventurous as any of the other children and were better at dancing and physical training, and that a sprinkling of them were always at the top of the class though there were, of course, some who had missed a great deal of schooling before they came to the Cité and who were still suffering from this.

I have put in the teachers' remarks on some of the girls in C.4 above. It was difficult to get them

to talk about the characters of the girls; they found it much easier to tell me what they were like at their lessons, but this is not, of course, peculiar to Belgium and I am sure I should have found the same difficulty in almost any group of teachers on the Continent. But once I made it clear that I was not primarily interested in their prowess in school work but rather in their general adaptation, in the general way in which they settled down and in their ability to get on with the other children, the teachers did show that they were aware of these things.

The two teachers in charge of the Kindergarten painted a very different picture, however. They said that the little children from the Cité were much less enterprising and friendly and much less able to stand on their own feet than the three- or four-year-olds from families about. You could feel the motherliness of these Kindergarten teachers, and, though one has to make allowances for the fact that there was a certain rivalry in motherly feeling between them and the babies' house-mothers in the Cité, their uneasiness at the thought of a *pavillon* full of little three-year-olds did reinforce the President's uneasiness and my own, which I have already commented on.

I went to the prize-giving at the girls' high school at Charleroi—a most elaborate affair in the very ornate and beautiful Assembly Room in the Town Hall. The primary school prize-giving was held in the Régence at Marcinelle and on both occasions it was the Bourgemeister and high civic officials who gave away the prizes. I could not help feeling that more civic honour is paid to education, at any rate in this part of Belgium, than anywhere else where I have been.

As regards the high school, I was not able to talk to the teachers, but I did see how easily the two girls mixed with their fellows, looking quite as charming and quite as much at home as any of them. The prize-giving itself seemed to me a formidable experience for children. In each case there was a row of grandees, each of whom gave out prizes as the names of a whole class with their examination marks were read out. Each child had to search along the row for her particular donor—the kind of treasure-hunt that, done on a large stage in front of hundreds of people, might well have caused awkwardness and embarrassment. But the Cité children, along with all the

rest, treated it with the utmost poise and ease, and each child (for at the end of the school year in Belgium every pupil gets a prize) tracked down his prize and bowed his thanks with great self-possession.

The Director took me to see over the chief girls' technical school in Charleroi, where Suzanne, a very beautiful girl who has been at the Cité since she was three and whose father was an African, is doing a five-years' course in Domestic Science. We saw both Suzanne's principal teacher and the very elegant and charming Head of the school. Both took pains to discuss her progress and what she should do next, primarily with the Director of the Cité, but also in answer to any question of mine. The whole episode was very like a talk between parents and Headmistress about a promising girl who has her own difficulties. Both her teachers said that, though she is a passionate creature, able to work for anybody she loves but quite unable to make any effort for teachers who have not got her liking, she shows great consideration and tact for the other girls in her group and they have found nothing in her behaviour which would have led them to think that she came from an institution or from anything but a most loving and considerate home.

Vocational Guidance

I was not able to do what I would very much like to have done, that is to go and see the boys and girls who are already at work or in apprenticeships. As stated in the tables given above, these cover a very wide range of activities and, even if I had had time to go, I think the employers would have found it a rather odd procedure. As far as I can gather, both from the Director and from the apprentices themselves, they settle down to work exactly on a par with their contemporaries, and an employer would, I imagine, have been puzzled if I had asked him whether they were different in their general adaptability or their attitude to their work

from any of the other youngsters in his workshop or factory.

I did have a long talk with the officer at the Charleroi Vocational Guidance Centre and questioned him rather closely about the Cité children, because it is so often found that children from the old-fashioned orphanage have an extraordinarily meagre experience upon which to draw in choosing their trade or profession. The Vocational Guidance Officer said that this was by no means so with the Cité children. Many of them go to him, as do other young people, with a fairly clear idea of the work they want to do, and he feels that, if anything, the Cité children's choices are more in accordance with their aptitudes and possibilities and show less fantasy and wishful thinking than do the choices of many adolescents.

I asked him how this could be so, since the Cité children lacked the wide circle of adult friends and relatives from whom they might have learned something of the work of the world. He said that he thought the married couples in charge of the *pavillons* for older boys and girls are often a great help to them in talking over possible choices of work. But, even more important than this was

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the fact that the older Cité children are scattered over such a wide variety of employment, and they talk so freely to their younger contemporaries both about the nature of their training and their worldly prospects when it is completed, that the primary school children are even more aware than are most family children of the important and interesting working lives before them. He also pointed out that the Cité children are by no means cloistered and go out to school from the Kindergarten upwards.

The only other contact I was able to make with someone quite outside the Cité and yet in close touch with some of its children was with a very nice, young Social Worker from the Child Welfare Offices in Charleroi. She did not know at all who I was nor that I had any right to ask her about the children, so I had to be a little discreet in my questioning, but I did gather two quite definite opinions from her. First, that, in almost all the pavillons at the Cité, children are making great strides in their development both as regards health and happiness and a sense of pleasure in life. Second, that a really vigilant and energetic Local Authority can work hand-in-hand with the Cité in providing generously for the child's school and professional training and in protecting him from unreasonable and grasping parents.

PAST CITIZENS

THE older boys who go off to do their military service (five have done so in the last six weeks) cannot be counted as past citizens. Their names remain on the Cité files; they come back to the Cité when they have leave; and when their period of service is over they can settle down here again, take up the trade for which they had qualified before leaving, and remain here, if they wish, until they marry and go off to set up homes of their own.

The younger children who leave the Cité do so to rejoin their families who have re-united after the illness of one of the parents or on recovery from some other temporary mischance. Sometimes, if they have come here because of the death of their father, their mother re-marries or her circumstances in some way improve so that she is able to have her children about her again.

But I found great indignation and resentment in the minds of both the Director and some of the house-mothers over the reason for which some of

the adolescent children are taken away from the Cité. I was told that only too often a family will get rid of a child when he is young and a nuisance but will claim him back as soon as the family sees a chance of profiting by his earning power or, in the case of a girl, by her domestic accomplishments.

In an effort to see how significant a number of adolescents are thus exploited by families that have neglected them whilst they were children, I examined the case-notes on all the children over twelve years of age who have left the Cité during the past eighteen months (January 1st, 1950, to July 1st, 1951); 110 children in all had left during this period, 34 of them being over twelve. Here are brief notes on those whose families seem to be exploiting them:

- (a) Boy of sixteen, taken away by widower father who is a drunkard. Put to work as unskilled worker next day; father takes all his wages.
- (b) Brother of the above, aged fourteen, similarly treated.
- (c) Boy of seventeen, taken away by his mother and sent to work in the mines. She takes all his wages. (Not at all clever but was learning a trade thoroughly here and could have done much better for himself.)
- (d) Brother of the above, nearly fifteen; also at the mines, even more unsuitably placed.
- (e) Boy, was at the Cité only one month, taken away by grandmother who takes all his wages.
- (f) (g) (h) Three children of Quisling parents; the mother removed them all immediately on her release from prison; no further news of them. (The Secretary commented that such parents, having a very anti-social attitude, are likely both to exploit their children and to encourage them in an anti-social way of life).
- (i) Boy of nineteen who had been seven years at the Cité and was doing very well. His father is living with a woman who has eight non-earning children. The boy is badly exploited and has to give all his wages to his father.
- (j) Epileptic girl of eighteen; illiterate; taken away by her grandparents who exploit her perhaps more out of ignorance and extreme poverty than from unkindness, but the girl would have had a better chance if she had been left here.
- (k) Boy, sixteen, apprenticed to a baker and doing well. Quisling mother took him away as soon as she returned from prison; no further news.
- (l) Boy, seventeen, was serving apprenticeship as baker; the father had disappeared. Mother suddenly came to fetch this boy and a younger child. No news but he is almost certainly exploited.

One knows how difficult it is to legislate in order to prevent cases such as these. The law must protect the good family, which, however hard up, is the child's most natural milieu during his years of growth, from interference by any

outsider, however well-intentioned. But the Director and others at the Cité expressed their anxiety that some protective measures should be enforceable against really exploiting parents. I discussed the matter with the young Social Worker mentioned at the end of the last chapter. She told me that no new legislation is necessary and that the fate of such children really depends on the energy and good will of their Local Authority. In Charleroi, if a family which is quite unfit to look after him applies for the return of a child, they are told quite blandly but quite firmly that it is very much in the child's own interest that he should remain at the Cité until his education and vocational training is complete, but that if the family insists on having him home no one can prevent their doing so. The one condition is that they should repay to the Local Authority the total sum that his stay at the Cité has cost. If the family appeals against this in Court, the Local Authority's condition is upheld, and, since the sum involved usually amounts to many thousands of francs, the matter is almost always dropped. This, of course, only protects a child from parents who wish to exploit his earning capacity. A very undesirable home might be in a position to repay the Authorities and yet might exploit the adolescent in other than financial ways. All the same, a really conscientious and energetic Authority has considerable control over the children's destinies.

Whilst looking through the records of past citizens, I jotted down particulars of all those over twelve who had left during the last eighteen months. They fall fairly sharply into two categories: the majority, who are now happily placed, and the seven or eight who are now under some form of detention and correction. I was looking only for exploited adolescents and very much regret that I did not therefore take particulars of such details as the duration of stay at the Cité, which would have been highly interesting in the case of the following, who have been sent for detention:

- (a) Was placed here by Procureur du Roi (family deprived of its rights over the child—very rare occurrence—only six families at the Cité have been so dealt with). Known to be very difficult and rather delinquent when he came; did not improve; removed by Procureur to a reformatory.
- (b) Was here only one year; parents separated and living on either side of Franco-Belgian frontier; boy left to live with father; has been caught smuggling several times; now in reformatory.

- (c) Boy, fourteen; he truanted from school several times whilst at the Cité; finally asked his father to take him away; is said to be in a reformatory.
- (d) Came at fifteen from a bad orphanage, unable to read; here two years; left to become farm-hand, still illiterate; has proved unsatisfactory; now in a reformatory.
- (e) Sent here by Children's Judge; very unruly; removed and sent to a semi-reformatory.
- (f) Sent to Cité by Children's Judge; only here six months; was always fighting at his place of work and spent all his earnings on himself. Judge sent him to reformatory.
- (g) Sent to Cité by Children's Judge; withdrawn for mild correction; begged to come back; was still very difficult. Withdrawn and sent to reformatory.
- (h) Sent by Children's Judge; withdrawn and sent to reformatory.

All the other past citizens are happily out in the world—one of them a book-keeper in the Belgian Congo and the rest in a variety of jobs—and all write frequently to friends in the Cité or come and see them, but this last is not a very happy list. Possibly *for the moment* the Cité would do better not to accept children who are known to be pre-delinquent, since these probably require more psychological help than is available as yet. It is only at the urgent request of the Children's Judge that they accept the small proportion who do come. Once they are here they are scattered throughout the *pavillons* and treated no differently from the rest of the children. Their names are not on any separate file. I therefore only discovered these eight who have left the Cité for further correction. I had not time enough to find the others and to discover what proportion of them have settled down well and are making good progress.

This problem of the pre-delinquent is a very difficult one in all big towns in these post-war years. I feel sure that the Cité can make a great contribution to its solution when its own psychological service is complete.

SUMMING-UP

THE Cité is, of course, feeling its way towards the full education of all its citizens. The attitude of those in charge is experimental and they are quite aware that at present, though in many ways the children are perfectly looked after, their emotional and aesthetic needs are not fully met. They are moving this summer towards two major reforms which will, I feel sure, help to realize the conception of the Cité, which is so imaginative and fine.



*Girls of C.4
Washing
Up*



*Big Boys
relaxing
after Supper*

First, they have appointed a very capable and wise woman as psychologist to the whole Cité. She is to be directly responsible for the well-being of the beautiful new building for infants from 0 to 2 years and for the youngest children now at the Cité. She will also be responsible for the guidance and training of the house-mothers in the psychological laws of child development.

Secondly, it is proposed to alter the present unnatural arrangement of *pavillons* for age-groups like a school class. Instead of this, they will be like ordinary homes, with a mixture of ages and with the boys and girls together. The existing *pavillons* for the adolescents with their charming private rooms will still continue. A child's move

into these will be felt by him to be a privilege of growing up, and here the boys and girls will have separate *pavillons*; but once they have moved into one of these they will remain there with no further change until they feel themselves ready to leave the Cité.

This change will get rid of the three things about which I felt least happy.

(1) The segregation of the little children between three and five. These will now be scattered in groups of two or three among the *pavillons* of the older girls and will move when they are five or six into one of the mixed *pavillons* where they will remain until pre-adolescence.

(2) The too-frequent changing of children from

one *pavillon* to another as they grow older. The house-mothers suffer very much from losing the children for whom they have done so much and whom they have grown to love dearly. The children suffer from losing, not only their 'Mamy' but often too their family group, in which they have made real friendships, or at worst, to which they have made an adjustment. Under the new plan a child will change only once, or at most twice: from being a baby in a big girls' *pavillon* to the grown-up feeling of being a five or six-year-old in a mixed *pavillon*; and, at adolescence, into a room of his own.

(3) The Cité does not, I think, do enough to conserve what remains of the natural sibling family. Out of the 247 children at the Cité 128 have one or more siblings here. There is one family of five children; four of four; eight of three; and the rest in pairs. Of all these, only 30 are living with any of their own family and these in 15 pairs scattered throughout the Cité. The children suffer from this unnatural separation. You have only to tell one of them that you have seen its brother or sister, whom you recognized at once because they are so much alike, to see the flash of pleasure and to hear the im-

mediate questions about what the sibling was doing, what he or she said, and so on. Once the *pavillons* have a greater age-range and do not separate the boys and girls until adolescence, the families will be able to remain much more united; and the Cité has other plans afoot for arranging family evenings where the elder children are out at work all day.

The appointment of the resident psychologist fulfils a need which will have been apparent throughout this report. The house-mothers have a very unsentimental attitude to the children, which is good, because the last thing one wants to encourage is self-pity. But I noticed in them also a lack of understanding of the laws governing the psychological development of children. This seems to me particularly dangerous when they are dealing with children who, however 'ordinary' in themselves, have a disturbed and abnormal family story behind them.

The report as a whole should have made clear the many excellent things in the life of the Cité:

Its great stand for social justice which takes the most deprived children and gives them a setting more healthy, more comfortable and more

beautiful than that of most children even in Belgium to-day;

The absence of any hint of the old charity orphanage;

The real individual care given to each child in his or her general training and in the choice of post-primary education or apprenticeship that fits his wishes and his capacities;

The scrupulous care that is taken not to exploit the adolescents in the interests of the Cité once they are trained and fit for work;

The gymnasium; and the dispensary with all the medical services that lie behind it;

The immense and unselfish devotion of the house-mothers.

At the back of all this work lies, of course, the creative imagination and the frequent personal presence of the President and administrators of the Inter-communale of Charleroi.



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NOTES FROM THE ENGLISH SECTION

Section news in this issue relates the activities of some of the Branches. Besides such activities many individuals have responded to the Human Rights enquiry. Replies from many parts of the world are now being collated, and a full report will appear in February. The report of Mr. W. E. Payne, who represented the Fellowship at the recent Unesco Seminar on the Teaching of History, will appear shortly. The next number will contain two articles by E.N.E.F. members.

Do we get Value for Money in Education?

DERBY BRANCH started its winter session by posing this question. The Speakers were: Mr. E. J. Larkin, Staff Assistant to the Mechanical and Electrical Engineer, London Midland Region of British Railways, and Mr. J. Longland, Director of Education for Derbyshire. Mr. Larkin opened the discussion, maintaining that we are decidedly not getting value for the money which we spend on education to-day. This was stoutly refuted by Mr. Longland.

Mr. Larkin's main arguments were:

1. Increased expenditure has not led to an increase in the quality of the 'product'. New entrants to industry compare unfavourably with those of ten or twenty years ago, both in mastery of the basic subjects and in desire to work.
2. Expenditure on the raising of the school leaving age has not been justified. A year in industry would be much more profitable and would lead to a better attitude to work.
3. Time and money are wasted on teaching subjects such as may be regarded as 'frills'—music, art, and practical technical work in the Secondary Modern School.
4. Industry can only pay for what people actually do, and not for what they are capable of doing. Modern education is generating a dislike for unskilled labour and a feeling amongst young people that they are too good for such work.
5. It is proposed, as soon as possible, to spend still more money on County Colleges—intended for ALL young people up to the age of 18. This would be another waste of time and money and would cause a further withdrawal of essential labour from industry. Attendance at part-time education should be the reward for merit. L.E.A.'s. were creating problems for industry

by cutting down the number of subjects dealt with in evening institutes and making it necessary for students to withdraw from their work for part-time technical education.

6. As there is now no such thing as a 'poor' working man, money spent on providing milk and meals in schools was not justified, nor was the school medical service on top of the National Health Service.
7. The standard of luxury in new school buildings was absurd. He would like to see much simpler buildings and more money spent on staffs. Elaborate rooms for housecraft, craftwork, etc., were unnecessary. Older buildings should receive more attention.
8. Experiments in Comprehensive Schools were an attempt to introduce mass education.

Mr. Longland opened his reply by pointing out that it is impossible to answer the question before the meeting. There are no quick results in education—we have to wait, perhaps twenty years, to see the results of what we are doing to-day. Some almost chance happening at school must often fire a child's imagination and have the most far-reaching effects. Mr. Larkin's arguments, he suggested, were based almost entirely on the interests of industry. He denied that, in the education of children, the interests of industry should be the most important consideration. Children are more than wage-earners and other aspects of their personality must have adequate attention. He doubted whether it is, in point of fact, true that children leave school with a poor attitude to work. In his experience, employers had expressed a good deal of approval of the modern recruit to industry and of the advantages of the extra year at school.

He denied that the nation cannot afford the present level of expenditure on education. The money comes, directly or indirectly, from our own pockets for the education of our own children. He quoted figures to show that the average individual spends considerably less on the education of his children than on his tobacco and drinks, and about the same as on his football pools.

He outlined the way in which the money is spent—fifty per cent. on teachers' salaries. He felt sure that nobody would argue either that teachers' salaries are too high or that there are enough teachers. Seventeen per cent. went on equipment, books, etc., for keeping the schools going. Five to six per cent went on scholar-

ships and grants for further education. Four per cent. only went on administration—a figure which compares favourably with most business organizations.

He doubted whether children are being turned away from manual work. There will always be recruits for work which is sufficiently well paid. The raising of the school leaving age is fully justified in view of the increasing complexity of modern life. Our aim is not to train children for specific jobs but to cultivate alertness and adaptability and to turn out happy human beings. The subjects which Mr. Larkin characterized as 'frills' are fully justified in their results. Unless we consider wives to be a luxury we can hardly describe the teaching of cooking and housecraft as a luxury.

The improvement in weight, height and health of children is due largely to school milk and meals. There has recently been a considerable saving in the cost of construction of new buildings. Present costs, after taking in account the increase in prices of materials and the reduction in value of the £ compare favourably with pre-war costs.

A lively discussion followed in which it was suggested:

1. That a comparison of photographs of school groups now and thirty or forty years ago showed that there had been an incredible improvement in the children, and
2. That there is need for much closer contacts between industry and teachers.

The Teacher and the Community

KINGSWAY BRANCH has experimented in running three Discussion Groups of about ten or twelve members. Two groups have met with a previously arranged topic for discussion; the other had met with no topic in mind. The following is a brief report of two meetings of one of the groups, when the topic was 'The Teacher and the Community'. Severely condensed as it is, the report may yet be of interest as showing how widely discussion ranges when every member of the group is made to feel at home in it and that he has a contribution to make. Many other topics have been discussed. The Groups are continuing this winter.

Mr. James Hemming opened the discussion by suggesting that Education and the rising status of the teacher should be considered against the background of a changing society. With the change from instruction to education teachers are in a strategic position. Society is dependent upon them. Is the profession consciously willing to undertake this new rôle in

society? The school has changed. Its rôle is now more extended. Parents come to the school more, industrialists look to it. It is the place where children pick up their attitudes, where social understanding is developed.

Because the attitudes of the teacher permeate the whole life of the child and carry through into society, the teacher's attitudes are important. In order to carry on the real function of education, he must be a big person socially. He is involved in the whole life of the community, and accordingly must live the life of the community, putting himself into the position of being heard more and consulted.

The subject was then thrown open to discussion. It was asked whether the teacher could have such a large influence, since he is in touch with a child for a relatively small part of his life, and the personal contact is far less than in the home. Mr. Hemming said that the formative things were those with which the child identified himself, regardless of the time spent with them, and these things have a tremendous influence. School is often carried into the home. The foundation is laid in the home in the first five years, but after that school becomes the centre of gravity and the crossroads of the child's experience.

Members thought that specialization brought too little personal contact and it was felt that teachers should be fully educated persons, proficient in one subject, rather than specialists who could do nothing else. It was felt that it was important that the right people entered the profession, that the choice should not have to be made too young, and that it was wrong to lower standards to get people in.

In the second meeting Mr. Hemming asked if members were ready to accept the statement that 'Teachers have not yet faced up to their new responsibilities.' He drew a comparison between teachers and other members of society, such as doctors and industrialists, who were changing their social attitudes to meet the needs of their new obligations.

The problem of finding time for some free discussion and the need for teachers to have the right personal assessment as to what constitutes success were considered. Specialisation was felt to obstruct at many points the social purpose of the school. The problem of giving the child a secure social group was discussed, and the 'home room' plan was generally approved as a means of every child having a friend on the staff. Need to concentrate staff attention on problem cases was emphasized, as was the need for the Child Guidance Clinic and the school to work in close collaboration.

It was felt that staff meetings are an essential part of school planning, and the view was held that the authorities do not always understand the need for consultation.

South Buckinghamshire

A local group in South Bucks has been started on the initiative of Mr. A. Weaver, who has become the Secretary. A first meeting was held in Seer Green on 8th May at the Children's Home of which he is the Warden. Mr. A. Bloom and Mr. J. B. Annand were both present and gave stimulating talks on *Education*—at St. George-in-the-East—and on the *Fellowship*, to an audience of about twenty-five.

At this meeting a Committee was elected consisting of Miss Edith Warr of Beaconsfield, Chairman; a farmer in Seer Green, and three members from the village of Jordans. The Committee has undertaken to stand any financial losses during the first year, after which a more formal constitution may be considered. The aim of the group is to foster parent-teacher relationships, since there are no active Associations in the neighbourhood, and to discuss and make known new educational methods and ways of handling children at home and at school.

In July Miss A. E. Martin, Chairman of the E.N.E.F., in a talk in Jordans Village Hall, gave a wide survey on *Your part in your child's school life*. This was attended by a larger audience than in May, and perhaps testifies to the good seeds sown then. The meeting was followed a week later by a Discussion held in one of the Jordans Nursery Schools.

In November Mr. James Hemming addressed a meeting in one of the largest halls in Beaconsfield on *What makes children naughty?* This was followed by a Discussion a week later at which the Headmaster of the local primary school expounded his aims and methods.

The School To-day

TORBAY BRANCH discussed this topic at length and with enthusiasm after the National Secretary had described some of the trends in education to-day—trends which reflected the changed attitude to children and the changing function of the school. The meeting was notable in that it included teachers from all types of school in the neighbourhood, members of the inspectorate, local education authority, and Education Committee. It is worth recording that, at its Annual Meeting, this Branch elected a non-teaching parent as Chairman for the year.

Book Reviews

The Right of the Child. Chapter in Social History. Edward Fuller. (Gollancz, 9/)

When a humanitarian or educational movement has reached a certain maturity it is good if, looking backwards over the road travelled, one can see that from modest beginnings great and beneficent results have come. That is true in uncommon degree of the Save the Children Fund. The story of the Fund and its founder can never fail to enthrall, and readers of the *Right of the Child* are fortunate in learning about both from a man intimately associated with them almost from the time Eglantyne Jebb launched her appeal to 'save the children' in 1919. The author, Mr. Edward Fuller, gratefully aware of the privilege of that association, reviews in these one hundred and sixty pages the thirty odd years of a very rare achievement.

It was on seeing the effects of the children in Europe of the first World War that Eglantyne Jebb came back and launched in Britain her appeal for the money to save as many as might be. The response of the British people, individuals and through their communities—whether of church, school, trade union or other groups—made possible an unprecedented amount of relief. Administration of the relief soon revealed however that the wounds found in the bodies and minds of the children were not the result of war alone. They were largely due to the very inadequate ideas prevailing almost everywhere about what constituted the real welfare of children. Thus it was after World War One most probably that people realized for the first time that efforts to relieve immediate distress, relief work proper, must be followed up by the continuous long range effort to discover and to establish the permanent conditions essential to the general well-being of the child. This is an outstanding merit of the Fund that in its work both at home and abroad it continually and successfully was trying out new methods. Its unique and historical achievement has been the proclamation and the application of the principle that the child as such is entitled to help whatever his race, religion or country, or the political allegiance of its parents. That principle, Eglantyne Jebb was soon to formulate in the now famous Declaration of the Rights of the Child, the Declaration of Geneva, adopted by the League of Nations in 1923.

It is true that even the British reader is helped less perhaps than might be to know the reactions of the world outside Britain to this great

ovement and its founder. The present reviewer, living most of the inter-world-war period on the continent of Europe, has occasion to be—particularly in the Balkans and Central Europe in the thirties—that the Declaration of Geneva had a dynamic which begot wherever it became known work and devotion that transformed alike the lives of children and the conception of social service in the European lands most needing that transformation. The most recent developments in the work of the International Union for Child Welfare (formerly the Save the Children International Union) are justifying the hopes entertained by Eglantyne Webb in founding the Union only a few months after the Save the Children and as an essential instrument in carrying out her ideas in other parts of the world. It is striking roots in other continents and its value has been recognized by the United Nations and some of its Specialized Agencies which have given it consultative status.

Lothian Small

The Gateway Mathematics, Book 1. D. Levin. (Methuen, 2/9; answers, 2/3).

The Gateway Mathematics, Book 1, is primarily designed for slow and average children in Modern Schools. Wherever possible, and certainly to a great extent in the first part of the course, all manipulation and understanding of number is based on practical measuring and drawing. Addition and subtraction of fractions and decimals go hand-in-hand with concrete experiences of these processes. Applications are simple and well related to experiences within the child's grasp—for example, plans of simple gardens, a working girl's flatlet, and schools. Examples of different types of question are numerous—a great advantage. Graphs and areas are treated in similar concrete fashion and there are a large number of useful questions attached to the reading of the graphs. There are useful sections on time-tables and proportion: the first gives ample opportunity for calculations which are simple yet often avoided even by adults; the latter has some useful examples dealing with recipes and car-speeds—both necessary tools for present-day living.

Although its subject-matter is not

new, the presentation of the book appears to have been carefully thought out and an effort made to give sufficiently simple and easy stages for all children to follow. It is essential to realize that it is a book of examples, leaving the teaching to the teacher. There are no explanations, yet questions are so graded that in many cases they are self-explanatory. It is this, perhaps, which makes me wonder if such careful spoon-feeding removes all challenge from the subject, even for dull children. Perhaps it is that the cover and presentation are suggestive of Junior School work and, on the surface, there appears little to associate mathematics with anything except doing sums. I fully realize that is necessary to keep down costs, but could not the Modern School child feel he is taking a more adult approach even if this is not so? The type of book which is worth keeping has something to recommend it.

The great value of the book lies in its suggestions and the carefully planned scheme on which it is based. But to get full use of it, the teacher would, I think, have to work through on this scheme, and this tends to thwart initiative and does not always stimulate others to develop their own courses.

P. Higginbotham

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Musische Erziehung. Prof. Dr. Leo Weismantel und Oberschulrat Franz Hilker. 192 pp. 1950. (Verlag Ernst Klett, Stuttgart 4,50 DM).—**Erfassen und Gestalten.** Ludwig Praehauser, 544 pp. 1950. (Otto Müller Verlag, Salzburg, 62 Austrian Shillings).

The first book is a report of an important congress on art education held towards the end of 1949 in Fulda, Germany. Its initiator and guiding spirit was Dr. Weismantel. German teachers, who made many notable contributions to the theory and psychology of art education, are catching up again. The speeches at the congress prove it. The programme included music, movement, poetry, and art in school. The debates are not printed, but the resolutions leave no doubt about the spirit of the congress. One of them was against any copying of any sort (modern art included), against formal teaching of perspective, light and shadow-constructions, anatomy, and so on. Among the speakers were Betzler, Kornmann, Winkler, Barfaut, Seidenfaden. From Dr. Weismantel's opening address I should like to quote one sentence: 'Our schools of to-day deny the rights of the child and regard children and youths as unfinished adults.'

Praehauser's beautifully produced and richly illustrated book (mostly about adult art, however) is a very comprehensive work on the history of art education from the end of the nineteenth century to this day. He deals especially with Central Europe, but England's contribution is not neglected. The pioneers receive due credit. One of the chapters deals with the relation between educational reform and art education. The author speaks out of the experience of a long and fruitful life. He demands from the teacher devotion and a genuine love and understanding of art. There should be better preparation of the future teacher in training colleges, he says. With others he believes that the right kind of art education could cure many evils of our time. An abridged English translation of Praehauser's book would be useful.

Wilhelm Viola

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